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ABSTRACT

Presenting a representative sample of recent (1977-1988) professional literature dealing with reading instruction, development, and performance of children who have been labeled at-risk, this 227-item annotated bibliography encompasses qualitative and quantitative research, literature reviews, and conceptual pieces that are undergirded by empirical research or referenced articles. The bibliography includes both first- and second-language reading research related to literacy concerns of identifiable populations who traditionally have not fared well in American schools. The references have been assigned to one of nine general categories: (1) the development of reading ability; (2) instructional programs; (3) instructional strategies, curriculum, and practices; (4) teacher decisions and behavior; (5) student characteristics and behavior; (6) sociolinguistic considerations; (7) sociocultural perspectives; (8) assessment and referral; and (9) home influences. An author index is attached. (Author/RS)

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CENTER FOR THE STUDY OF READING

Technical Report No. 482

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF RESEARCH RELATED TO THE READING OF AT-RISK CHILDREN

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August 1989

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Abstract

This bibliography presents a representative sample of the recent (1977-1988) professional literature dealing with the reading instruction, development, and performance of children who have been labeled at-risk. It encompasses quantitative and qualitative research, literature reviews, and conceptual pieces that are undergirded by empirical research or referenced articles. Both first- and second-language reading research are discussed as is research related to the literacy concerns of identifiable populations who traditionally have not fared well in American schools.

There are 227 entries with abstracts. To facilitate their use, the references have been assigned to one of nine general categories: the development of reading ability; instructional programs; instructional strategies, curriculum, and practices; teacher decisions and behavior; student characteristics and behavior; sociolinguistic considerations; sociocultural perspectives; assessment and referral; home influences.

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF RESEARCH RELATED TO THE READING OF AT-RISK CHILDREN

Preface

When schools open their doors for the first time each year, thousands of parents across the country anticipate that their children will be taught to read. Most youngsters and their parents not only expect, but are increasingly demanding, that our nation's educational system provide them with more than just hope and promise for a better future. For many parents, the ultimate measure of educational effectiveness is a child who by the time he or she is finished with elementary school can, and does, read. Sadly, and far too routinely, an intolerable proportion of the students entering school do not leave it as literate individuals.

We present this annotated bibliography as a first step in dealing with the reading instruction, development, and performance of children who have been labeled at-risk. We use the term at-risk grudgingly in spite of the fact that it recently has attained such widespread popularity. Our use of this term is not based on the belief that the children so described are at fault or somehow to blame for the situation in which they find themselves. Quite to the contrary, we recognize that academic achievement for many children is difficult in American schools due to a variety of complex reasons that defy quick and easy solutions.

Our aim in developing this bibliography has been to present a representative sample of the recent (1977-1988) professional literature dealing with the reading competence of at-risk children. Several different research traditions have been included in an attempt to avoid a narrow focus and the bias that might otherwise go unnoticed. With the goal of producing a work that would address the central issues, we directed specific attention to those studies that focused on the literacy concerns of children from identifiable populations that have traditionally not fared well in school. These include, but are not limited to, black, Hispanic, and Native-American children; limited-English-proficient children; and children from poor urban and rural environments. For whatever populations involved, reading research focusing on theory, research, and classroom practice received the most emphasis.

The setting of a time frame obviously placed limitations on what was included in the bibliography. We acknowledge that some important seminal work, as for example in the areas of reading disability and sociolinguistics, took place prior to 1977. However, due to time constraints and staff limitations we felt compelled to limit the scope of our review.

In our search we attempted to include quantitative and qualitative empirical research, literature reviews that dealt with areas of particular concern, and conceptual pieces that were undergirded by empirical research or referenced articles. No special attempt was made to include doctoral dissertations.

In the process of identifying literature for inclusion in the bibliography, the *Current Index to Journals in Education, Linguistic and Language Behavior Abstracts*, the ERIC database, the *Annual Summary of Investigations Relating to Reading*, and the University of Illinois Library Computer System were all reviewed. We also made full use of resources that researchers frequently use but seldom acknowledge due perhaps to the serendipitous nature of these approaches. Recommendations given by our colleagues at the Center for the Study of Reading and by colleagues from around the country netted what would otherwise have been elusive prey. Our own backgrounds in reading comprehension theory, instruction, and assessment; clinical reading; sociolinguistics; multicultural education; second-language acquisition; and educational research served as a base from which to begin our search. Backtracking through referenced articles and hand searches also helped us to round up many stray pieces.

The initial list of references reviewed consisted of more than 900 entries. Over 500 of these citations have been recorded in the computer database *Notebook*. From these, 227 have been selected for inclusion in the bibliography.

All of the abstracts in the bibliography either were written by Georgia Earnest Garcia and Robert T. Jimenez or were reprinted with the permission of the International Reading Association from the *Annual Summary of Investigations Relating to Reading*. The latter abstracts are designated in the bibliography by the symbol (IRA). To facilitate their use, the references have been assigned to one of nine broad categories: the development of reading ability; instructional programs; instructional strategies, curriculum, and practices; teacher decisions and behavior; student characteristics and behavior; sociolinguistic considerations; sociocultural perspectives; assessment and referral; and home influences. Some of these nine categories also include subcategories.

We developed the headings inductively after collecting items for the bibliography. Several pieces could arguably be placed under different headings, but we tried to place each item in a way that would reflect its main emphasis. The studies included in *The Development of Reading Ability* tend to be empirical investigations that focus on the differential reading performance of various readers. Those in *Instructional Programs* describe the implementation or effectiveness of instructional programs and models at the school level; whereas, studies in *Instructional Strategies, Curriculum, and Practices* discuss materials, practices, and innovations at the classroom level. The focus of the articles in *Teacher Decisions and Behavior* is on teacher-student interactions and the role of the teacher in constructing the learning environment. *Student Characteristics and Behavior* includes studies that deal with attributional theory or that attempt to delineate the background and behavioral characteristics of good and poor readers. Studies included in *Sociolinguistic Considerations* tend to view reading as a social activity and consider the societal and cultural roles of language in the classroom. Those in *Sociocultural Perspectives* take a wider view and address literacy acquisition by looking at social and cultural influences. The articles in *Assessment and Referral* report findings from assessment measures and consider testing, referral, and placement issues. The last section, *Home Influences*, specifically looks at the role of the family in the child's literacy development and achievement at school.

While this bibliography is not all-inclusive, we hope that it will serve as an index of our current understanding. Our next step will be to synthesize in a careful and selective manner the research that forms this bibliography and that is recorded in the computer database. Out of this synthesis we intend to distill a state-of-the-art definition of who is at-risk for reading failure in American schools. The bibliography, synthesis, and definition will then serve as a foundation for our future line of empirical research into this area of need and concern.

1.0 The Development of Reading Ability

The references included in this section focus on the comparative reading development and performance of different types of readers. The empirical studies involve word-task analyses, miscue or cloze analyses, eye-movement analyses, reaction-time analyses, free recalls, or comprehension-based tasks. The studies have been classified under four subheadings: first language studies, dialect studies, second language studies, and general studies. The latter category includes theoretical articles that are relevant to the other three subheadings.

1.1 First Language Studies

August, D., Flavell, J. H., & Clift, R. (1984). Comparison of comprehension monitoring of skilled and less skilled readers. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *20*(1), 39-53.

> Aims at gaining a better understanding of how comprehension and comprehension monitoring differ for skilled and less skilled readers. The subjects were 32 fifth-grade students who were identified as skilled or less skilled readers by their scores on a comprehension subtest of the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills. Skilled readers were better able than less skilled readers to report that the story they were reading had a page of text missing. Differences in inferencing ability appeared to account for the different performances of the two groups.

Beech, J. R., & Harding, L. M. (1984). Phonemic processing and the poor reader from a developmental lag viewpoint. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *19*(3), 357-366.

> Investigates whether a significant relationship exists between (a) developmental lag in phonemic processes and poor reading ability and (b) phonemic processing skill and reading style. The subjects were 136 children, of whom 57 were poor readers, 44 were readers of the same reading age, and 35 were readers of the same chronological age. The hypothesis of a developmental lag in phonemic processes for poor readers was supported by the results.

Belloni, L. F., & Jongsma, E. A. (1978). The effects of interest on reading comprehension of low-achieving students. *Journal of Reading*, *22*(2), 106-109.

> Examines the interaction between reading interests and reading comprehension among fifty seventh graders. Low achievers were exposed to a collection of twelve short stories based upon research of adolescent reading interests; these stories were further categorized according to sex differences in reading interests. Reading difficulty of the stories ranged from two to four grade levels above the mean reading level of the students in the sample. Subjects were instructed to preview the titles and abstracts and select the one story they would least like to read. Subjects then read the stories they selected and were administered a cloze test with 50 deletions of each story. Results indicated that low-achieving seventh grade students comprehended material they considered highly interesting better than they comprehended low-interest material. The results also suggested that the subjects transcended their frustrational reading levels when reading materials that were highly interesting to them. No differences were revealed with regard to boys' versus girls' performances. (IRA)

Chall, J. S. (1983). *Stages of reading development.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

> Builds the case for a stage-development scheme of reading by hypothesizing that changes occur in the reading process depending on the developmental level of the individual in question. Chall proposes that her approach can benefit professionals, and provide an understanding of reading development among minorities, bilinguals, children of the poor and poorly educated, children with reading and learning disabilities, the deaf, and others with

special needs. She postulates six different reading stages: stage 0 (pre-reading, birth to age 6), stage 1 (initial reading or decoding, ages 6-7), stage 2 (confirmation, fluency, ungluing from print, ages 7-8), stage 3 (reading for learning the new, ages 8-13), stage 4 (multiple viewpoints, high school, ages 14-18), stage 5 (construction and reconstruction--a world view, ages 18 and above). She describes the different reading stages and provides suggestions for using this framework for teaching and testing. Chall asserts that her stage-development scheme should be viewed as a kind of metaphor that aids in the construction of a viable theory of reading and as a catalyst for future research. Her goal is to encourage as many people as possible to fully develop their literacy potential.

Erickson, L. G., Stahl, S. A., & Rinehard, S. D. (1985). Metacognitive abilities of above and below average readers: Effects of conceptual tempo, passage level, and error type on error detection. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, *17*(3), 235- 252.

Examines the effects of reading ability, passage difficulty, error type, and conceptual tempo (impulsivity/reflectivity) on error detection. Subjects consisted of 122 sixth-grade pupils. An ANOVA design consisting of two Reading Levels (above and below grade level) x two Conceptual Tempo Categories x Three Error Conditions (no error, nonsense word substitution, and phrase reordering) x two Passage Levels (third and sixth) was used with repeated measures on the last two factors. In addition, each subject was given a knowledge and purposes of reading interview and asked to make a reading difficulty judgment regarding the two passages that were read. Percentage of correct detections was used as the dependent variable. A number of significant main and interactive effects were found suggesting that conceptual tempo, passage readability, error type, and reading ability all influenced performance. However, no differences were found between good and poor readers or reflectives and impulsives on the metacognitive interview and the difficulty rating. (IRA)

Evans, B. D. (1978-79). A study of what Chicano and Anglo children remember about the stories they read and hear. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *14*(2), 272-276.

Examines the language comprehension of 64 third and sixth graders. Subjects were stratified on the basis of sex, ethnicity (Chicano or Anglo), and reading ability (high or low). Subjects read or listened to passages, then responded with immediate recall of the passage, and delayed recall 24 hours later. There were two types of story presentations and two types of study conditions (reading/listening or discussion study). Three sets of dependent measures were obtained at two points. Older and more capable readers recalled more information; males remembered more than females. There were no significant differences in performance between the Anglo and Chicano children. One of the four stories elicited more propositional and surface structure responses than the other stories at both the immediate and delayed recall test points. Generally, the remaining three stories provoked fairly equivalent responses. The story and study conditions produced no significant effects on the propositional and surface structure analyses. The author notes that her findings support both Kintsch's (1975) conclusion that propositional theory measures language comprehension as well as the assertion that written and oral comprehension comprise a singular language comprehension process.

Graves, M. F., & Slater, W. H. (1987). *The development of reading vocabularies in children from three social, economic, and linguistic settings: A preliminary report*. Unpublished manuscript.

Compares the size of reading vocabularies of first- through fourth-grade children from three distinct social, economic, and linguistic backgrounds. The first school was located in a lower-class rural area and contained 80% non-white children, many of whom spoke pidgin as a first language. A lower-class urban school with a 99% black-dialect speaking student enrollment was the second source of subjects, while the third was a middle-class school with a 95 percent white student population, all of whom spoke Standard English. Students were tested using a multiple-choice vocabulary test, based on a stratified random sample of words taken from the *American Heritage Word Frequency Book* (Carroll, Davies, & Richman, 1971), and interview prompts dealing with the same words. The latter involved requests to pronounce the word, to define it, to use it in a sentence, and to answer a question that contained a hint of the word's meaning. The statistical analyses consisted of three site (rural, urban, suburban) by four grade level (1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th) by three frequency block (1-3, 4-5, 6- 7) ANOVAS with repeated measures on the last factor. Rural students did not know as many of the tested words as did the urban or suburban students, and the urban students knew fewer of the tested words than the suburban students ($p < .001$). Results from correct meaning responses followed the same pattern ($p < .001$). All students tested had large reading vocabularies and learned words quickly, but the rural and urban students began school with smaller meaning vocabularies and less developed decoding skills than the suburban students. The authors urge that additional vocabulary instruction be given to students from non-majority cultural and linguistic backgrounds.

Juel, C., Griffith, P. L., & Gough, P. B. (1986). Acquisition of literacy: A longitudinal study of children in first and second grade. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 78*(4), 243-255.

Tests a model of early literacy acquisition, focusing on the interrelationship and development of word recognition, spelling, reading comprehension, and writing in a sample of 129 children (56 Anglo, 43 Hispanic, and 30 black) from first to second grade. The authors hypothesized that reading and writing are separate constructs and that reading is composed of decoding and listening comprehension, while writing is composed of spelling and ideation. They also proposed that decoding and spelling are composed of an orthographic cipher and lexical knowledge. The orthographic cipher is further broken down into phonemic awareness and experience with print. They tested their hypothesis through path analysis, noting the effects of ethnicity, IQ, and oral language (English) on the children's phonemic awareness. Their results indicated that (a) ethnicity and oral language strongly influenced first-grade year-end phonemic-awareness performance and to a lesser extent second-grade year-end performance; (b) there was a strong positive relationship between spelling and word recognition in both grades, with cipher and lexical knowledge accounting for 75% of the word recognition variance in first grade and 54% in second grade, and respectively accounting for 72 and 54% of the spelling variance; (c) the correlations between reading and writing were significantly less than the correlations between word recognition and spelling in first and second grade; (d) spelling and ideation made significant contributions to writing in both first and second grade, with ideation significantly contributing to writing over and beyond IQ and oral language, while the correlations between ideation and reading comprehension were quite low in both grades. The authors conclude that the diminishing effect of phonemic awareness in second grade is due to automaticity, and that this skill is distinct from general intelligence. Also, without a prerequisite amount of phonemic awareness, they do not think that children will acquire the spelling- sound correspondence necessary for reading comprehension and writing. They consider that lack of phonemic awareness is substantially responsible for the relatively poor reading achievement of minority students due to dialect and second language differences and possible cultural differences. Finally, they report that their results do not confirm a strong relationship between reading and writing processes.

Holmes, B. C. (1983). The effect of prior knowledge on the question answering of good and poor readers. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 15*(4), 1-18.

Determines whether poor readers are as adept at answering post-reading comprehension questions as good readers when their prior knowledge has been categorized as accurate, inaccurate, incomplete or missing. Subjects were 56 fifth grade pupils, having equivalent

IQs, but varying in reading ability and general knowledge of the passage topics. Four questions were written for each paragraph: one-idea text explicit, one-idea paraphrase, two-idea text explicit, and text implicit. There was a significant interaction between reading ability and extent of general prior knowledge for topic. When readers had accurate answers stored in memory, there were no significant differences on comprehension type. When answers were stored inaccurately, scores were considerably lower. When prior knowledge was incomplete, good readers again scored higher than poor readers. Posttests were also higher for good readers when they lacked prior knowledge for the topics. In general, poor readers were not as adept as good readers in answering post-reading questions. (IRA)

McClure, E., Mason, J., & Williams, J. (1983). Sociocultural variables in children's sequencing of stories. *Discourse Processes*, *6*,(2), 131-143.

Explores whether sociocultural differences in story schemata affect the reading comprehension of Black, Anglo and Hispanic students given a story unscrambling task in three versions: setting, question, and conclusion. For each of the 18 story versions, sentence length and semantic content were approximately equivalent, with sentences scrambled in a different random order for each of the 18 forms. Subjects were 455 third, sixth, and ninth grades from working class and middle class families, attending inner-city parochial schools. Each subject read six stories and placed the scrambled sentences in sequential order. Two sets of regression analyses, between subjects for reading achievement, ethnicity, social class, grade, and booklet, and within subjects for story version and the repeated Latin square, were repeated for each of four dependent measures. Scores were also compared to suburban Anglo children. Task effects were explained principally by grade for all four measures ($p < .001$). Reading achievement also contributes heavily ($p < .001$). Better readers at each grade level obtained higher scores. Sociocultural variables make small contributions to explaining variability. When comparing the results of this study to a predominantly Anglo suburban group, differences between the two groups were not significant. Ethnicity was a factor, but socioeconomic status was not. Certain story structures may not be as familiar to some ethnic groups as others. (IRA)

McKeown, M. G. (1985). The acquisition of word meaning from context by children of high and low ability. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *20*, 482-496.

Investigates differences in the process of acquiring word meaning from context in learners at different levels. A 5-step meaning-acquisition task, using artificial target words, was designed based upon a hypothesized view of an effective process of acquiring word meaning from context. The task was administered individually to 30 fifth-grade pupils dichotomized as having either high or low vocabulary ability. Separate scores were obtained for each step of the process. A series of *t*-tests as well as qualitative analyses were conducted. Findings revealed significant differences in favor of the high-ability group, differences in the types of errors made by each group, and differential difficulty within certain stages of the task. (IRA)

Paris, S. G., & Myers, II, M. (1981). Comprehension monitoring, memory, and study strategies of good and poor readers. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, *13*, 5-22.

Compares fourth grade good and poor readers on comprehension and memory skills in two studies. In the first experiment, 16 good and 16 poor readers were identified on the basis of scores on the SRA Assessment Survey. Groups were matched for age, sex, and mathematics scores. Children were asked to read orally two stories, one at third grade level and one at fifth grade level, containing nonsense words and phrases. Hesitations, repetitions, and self-corrections were recorded. Next children were given other stories, told that parts of the stories might not make sense, and asked to underline words and phrases that they did not understand. Nonsense phrases were noticed and corrected significantly more often than

nonsense words by both groups. Poor readers noticed more nonsense words in the grade three stories than good readers, but were poorer in detecting other anomalous information. Spontaneous monitoring of nonsense information was inferior for poor readers on fifth grade stories. Poor readers' failure to notice anomalous information was not due to lower absolute levels of monitoring but to less accurate comprehension checking. Poor readers underlined nonsense information less often than did good readers. On the comprehension check, both groups were highly accurate on the easier stories, but poor readers made many more errors on the harder stories than good readers. Good readers recalled more than poor readers. In Experiment 1, study behaviors, strategy evaluations, and recall were compared for 14 good and poor readers. Poor readers engaged in few spontaneous study behaviors and did not ask questions, take notes, or use a dictionary as often as good readers. They remembered somewhat less of the stories than good readers. (IRA)

Reis, R., & Spekman, N. J. (1983). The detection of reader-based versus text-based inconsistencies and the effects of direct training of comprehension monitoring among upper-grade poor comprehenders. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, *15*(2), 49-60.

Reports the results of two studies which examine the use of comprehension monitoring by middle-school pupils. The first study sought to determine whether poor readers have equal difficulty in detecting text-based and reader-based inconsistencies. Fifty-four sixth and seventh grade poor readers each read two passages. One passage contained three text-based inconsistencies while the other passage contained three reader-based inconsistencies. After each segment of the passage the reader was asked if something did not make sense and, if possible, to identify the inconsistency. An analysis of variance showed that subjects were able to identify a significantly greater number of reader-based inconsistencies. The second study assessed the effects of direct instruction in comprehension monitoring. Twenty-four subjects who scored lowest in study one were randomly assigned to either a treatment or control group. The treatment group received two training session (four passages) in detecting both text-based and reader-based inconsistencies. The control group received the same general instructions and testing that they had in the first study. An analysis of variance revealed significant differences, favoring the treatment group, on reader-based inconsistencies but no differences between groups on detecting text-based inconsistencies. (IRA)

Reynolds, R. E., Taylor, M. A., Steffenson, M. S., Shirey, L. L., & Anderson, R. C. (1982). Cultural schemata and reading comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *17*, 353-366.

Investigates the relationship between cultural schemata and reading comprehension of 105 eighth grade students, approximately half girls and half boys, from one school in Tennessee and two schools in two Illinois towns. One school drew from a black working class area (N=54); the others from a white agricultural area (N=51). The subjects read a letter including "sounding," a form of verbal insult predominantly found among black students which could be interpreted as fighting. After they read the letter, they wrote as much of it as they could remember in the same words used in the letter, if possible, reacted to the probe statements as being said/implied or not said/implied in the letter, and responded to a questionnaire concerning their attitudes toward the experiment, knowledge of sounding, and understanding of the letter. An unweighted means analysis of variance was performed on the probe data using cultural background (black vs. white) and sex as between subject factors and probe type (fight vs. sounding) as a within subject factor. The dependent measure was the subjects' rating as to whether or not the statement had appeared in the passage. There were no significant main effects, but the Culture x Probe Type interaction was significant. Two independent scorers rated the recall protocols as to whether they reflected fighting or verbal interplay interpretations. An analysis was made of the disambiguations (paraphrases of an idea revealing the subjects' underlying interpretations) and intrusions (phrases or sentences not directly related to any proposition in a passage) within the protocols. Unweighted means analyses of variance were performed using cultural background, sex, and type of expression (fight or verbal interplay) for both disambiguations. For intrusions a significant main effect was found for type of expression; the Culture x Type of Expression was also significant. The results showed that cultural schemata can influence the interpretation of prose materials. (IRA)

Stanovich, K. E. (1982). Word recognition skill and reading ability. In M. H. Singer (Ed.), *Competent reader, disabled reading: Research and application* (pp. 81-102). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Reviews research related to individual differences in rapid word recognition ability and the psychological processes involved. Psychological mechanisms are discussed in the areas of lexical access based on a phonological code, memory and phonological codes, phonologically related skills that contribute to early reading success, coordination of the phonological and visual-orthographic codes, and word recognition in context. It is concluded that word recognition is causally related to reading development, but that as yet it is unclear as to whether it is a facilitator of or a prerequisite for such development. (IRA)

Underwood, N. R., & Zola, D. (1986). The span of letter recognition of good and poor readers. *Reading Research Quarterly, 21*(1), 6-19.

Investigates the span of letter recognition of good and poor readers of at least average intelligence. The eye movements of 16 fifth-grade subjects, of whom half were reading above grade level and half were reading below grade level, were monitored as the subjects read expository passages that had been manipulated so that the subjects encountered erroneous text in specific regions of the visual field. The erroneous text consisted of replacements of visually dissimilar letters. Although the reading rate of the good readers was faster than that of the poor readers, the size of the span of letter recognition for both types of readers was very similar: two letters to the left of the center of the fixation to approximately six or seven letters to the right. The contention that good readers utilize letter information from a wider region of text was not supported. The authors suggest that these findings have major implications for theories of information processing and eye guidance in reading.

1.2 Dialect Studies

Bean, T. W. (1978). Decoding Strategies of Hawaiian Islands dialect speakers in grades four, five, and six. *Reading World, 17*(4), 295-305.

Uses the Reading Miscue Inventory to examine the reading performance of 50 Hawaiian Islands Dialect speakers identified as average and below average readers. The Hawaiian Dialect Proficiency Assessment was employed to measure student's control of phonology, syntax, and lexicon. Multivariate analysis of variance indicated a significant interaction between the decoding strategies used and the achievement of average and below average students. Although the author recommends that nonstandard dialect speakers be taught how to make full use of linguistic cue systems to enhance comprehension, he warns that teachers should not correct the dialect features revealed in the students' oral reading. He also suggests that supplementary lessons on reading strategies developed by Yetta Goodman be used with dialect speakers.

Gemake, J. S. (1981). Interference of certain dialect elements with reading comprehension for third graders. *Reading Improvement, 18*(2), 183-189.

Investigated the effects on oral reading errors and comprehension of common grammatical elements and syntactic complexity on third graders who spoke either nonstandard Black

English or bidialectic nonstandard Black English. The subjects were 54 children whose reading scores on the Metropolitan Reading Test ranged from grades 2.3 to 4.3. They were equally divided among nonstandard, bidialectic, and standard speakers. Their language patterns were established by repeating a sentence adapted from Baratz. The materials were 24 groups of three sentences, each group followed by two comprehension questions. Eight types of common grammatical elements common among nonstandard Black English children were incorporated into sentences on three levels of syntactic complexity: simple; complex with two independent clauses joined by "and"; and complex with a main and a dependent clause. The 72 sentences (24 groups of 3) were systematically rotated. Each subject read and answered questions orally while they were tape recorded and subsequently scored. Separate one-way analyses of variance were calculated among and within groups. The presence of the grammatical elements significantly influenced the oral reading errors of both nonstandard English-speaking groups but did not affect the standard English-speaking group. However, the grammatical elements did not affect the comprehension of any of the three groups. One significant difference was found "within" the three sentence types. The nonstandard Black English speaking children had a greater number of incorrect comprehension responses to the complex sentences. (IRA)

Manarino, P. (1980). Linguistic variables and the ability to recover deep structure among second-grade black students. *Reading Improvement, 17*(3), 243-247.

Hypothesizes and investigates a theoretical causal model describing relationships among selected linguistic variables and reading comprehension with grade two black pupils. The interrelationship among socioeconomic status, dialect, syntactic control, and word recognition as they affected pupils' ability to recover deep structure was studied. The Deep Structure Recovery Test (DSRT) was used to assess ability to recover deep structure; word recognition was assessed by 50 words taken from vocabulary on the DSRT; socioeconomic level was determined by syntactic differences indicative of black dialect. Subjects were 125 pupils randomly selected from the black population of a large metropolitan school district. Using the path analysis technique, the author found that oral syntactic control had the greatest direct effect upon deep structure recovery; word recognition had the second greatest effect. Dialect had a greater indirect effect upon the ability to recover deep structure than a direct effect.

Steffensen, M. S., Reynolds, R. E., McClure, E., & Guthrie, L. F. (1982). Black English vernacular and reading comprehension: A cloze study of third, sixth and ninth graders. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 14*(3), 285-298.

Assesses the effect of Black English Vernacular (BEV) on reading comprehension. A group of third, sixth, and ninth- graders were classified, using the Baratz Sentence Repetition Test, as BEV or Standard English (SE) speakers. Subjects were asked to complete a series of three multiple-choice cloze passages that had been constructed by deleting content words and verbs in the past and present tense. In another task, pupils had to supply time adverbials in short paragraphs written in past, present, and future tenses. Cloze scores were analyzed in four separate analyses of variance based on different tenses and tasks. Overall, significant main effects were found for grade level (older pupils scored higher than younger pupils), for dialect rating (SE speakers performed better than BEV speakers), and item type (content words were easier than verbs). Some significant interactions were also noted. (IRA)

Torrey, J. W. (1983). Black children's knowledge of standard English. *American Educational Research Journal, 20*(4), 627- 643.

Investigates the effects that Black English usage may have on black children's school language achievement in Standard English. Two experiments were conducted with 27 black

students from a low socioeconomic school in Harlem. Three hypotheses were tested: (a) the use of Standard English s endings in spontaneous speech would not predict comprehension or use in tasks that called for reflective attention to language; (b) tests that examine use of Standard English would significantly correlate with standardized tests of achievement; and (c) a higher correlation would be found between Standardized English usage and those tests that involve more reflective attention to language than with Standard English usage in spontaneous speech. Empirical support was obtained for all three hypotheses. The second experiment tested whether teaching Standard English s endings would significantly affect the children's performance on a picture-meaning task as compared to their performance on tasks involving less conscious attention to language. Torrey concludes that children's linguistic competence should not be judged solely on the basis of their spontaneous speech. She points out that there is wide variation in Black English usage within the black population and that many black children who use Black English in spontaneous speech are perfectly capable of handling Standard English in reading. She also warns that formal language instruction in standardized English may not have a significant impact on the children's spontaneous use of language.

1.3 Second Language Studies

Barnitz, J. G. (1985). *Reading development of nonnative speakers of English.* Orlando, FL: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.

Reviews first and second language research relevant to the reading development of second language learners in English. The definition of reading as a multileveled, interactive, hypothesis-generating process is maintained. Specific attention is given to the role of background knowledge and to the different components of language (lexicon, discourse, syntax, morphology, phonology, orthography). Instructional programs are reviewed, and recommendations regarding instructional strategies are presented.

Barrera, R. (1981). Reading in Spanish: Insights from children's miscues. In S. Hudelson (Ed.), *Learning to read in different languages* (pp. 1-9). Papers in applied linguistics: Linguistics and literacy series 1. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Reports findings from a miscue analysis of the oral reading of native Spanish speaking children which was conducted in an effort to determine what strategies the children used as they read in Spanish. The subjects were 14 third-grade pupils from South Texas. Most of their miscues (79.6%) involved word-for-word substitutions, a few involved word omissions (3.5%) and word insertions (2.7%), while the rest were related to multi-word complex and phrase miscues or clause level intonation miscues. Barrera concludes that young children reading Spanish do not simply process graphophonic cues but also apply their linguistic and textual knowledge to the task at hand. Furthermore, she states that the reading of the children in Spanish was not qualitatively different from that of native English-speaking children reading in English.

Blau, E. K. (1982). The effect of syntax on readability for ESL students in Puerto Rico. *TESOL Quarterly, 16*(4), 517-527.

Reports findings from two experiments which were performed to determine how reading comprehension is affected by sentence complexity. In the first study 85 undergraduate ESL students served as subjects, and in the second study three eighth-grade students served as subjects. Three different versions of 18 passages were created for the experiment. No significant differences in reading comprehension for the three passages were found for either the college students or the eighth-grade students. Nevertheless, the author reports that the students judged version 2 to be easier than version 1 since sentence complexity was not reduced and clues to underlying relationships were left intact. The students judged version 3 to be the hardest since clues were removed. The author suggests that readability formulas should not be followed blindly and that more research is needed involving reading and ESL students.

Campbell, A. J. (1981). Language background and comprehension. *Reading Teacher, 35*(1), 10-14.

Compares the reading performance of two third-grade students on cloze versions of a science and language arts text. One of the students was a high-achieving English as a second language (ESL) student while the other was a low-achieving native speaker of English. The children also were interviewed regarding their word selections. The ESL student provided a higher percentage of appropriate words on the science passage. The researcher concludes that the ESL student was able to comprehend specific content (e.g., science) better than non-specific content (e.g., language arts) due to her lack of relevant world knowledge outside of the school context.

Cziko, G. (1980). Language competence and reading strategies: A comparison of first- and second-language oral reading errors. *Language Learning, 30*(1), 101-116.

Compares the oral reading errors in French of intermediate and advanced second-language students with those of native- speaking students. The author investigated how language competence was related to the use of graphic and contextual cues in reading. Eighty-two percent of the intermediate student's errors were graphically similar to the text, and only 5% of their errors were deletions or insertions. Fourteen percent of the advanced students' errors consisted of deletions or insertions, and 76% of their errors graphically resembled the text. Twenty percent of the native speaker's errors were deletions or insertions, and 64% of their errors were graphically similar to the text. Cziko concludes that less proficient students are more dependent on bottom-up strategies. The native speakers used a more interactive strategy of reading as did the more linguistically competent second-language students.

Devine, J. (1981). Developmental patterns in native and non-native reading acquisition. In S. Hudelson (Ed.), *Learning to read in different languages* (pp. 103-115). Papers in applied linguistics: Linguistics and literacy series: 1. Washington DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Focuses on the search for general developmental patterns in learning to read common to adults learning to read English as a second language and native English-speaking children learning to read their native language. Fourteen Mexican adults learning English served as subjects. Major findings were that the number of miscues varied in accordance with the reader's first language proficiency level, grapho-phonic miscues increased as texts became more difficult, and the types of miscues made by the adult subjects were similar to those found by Y. Goodman with native English-speaking children. The author concludes that a general developmental pattern of reading proficiency does exist.

Dubois, D. M. (1979). Getting meaning from print: Four Navajo students. *Reading Teacher, 32*(6), 691-695.

Compares the developmental oral reading performance of four Navajo children in English. Uses miscue analysis to record the reading development of two children between grades two and four, and of two other children between grades four and six. All of the children read a passage from a basal reader and a passage deemed to be culturally appropriate. The children committed more miscues on the culturally appropriate passage and were able to retell more of this passage. The author concludes that the children's reading of the culturally appropriate passage was more efficient. She also notes that the children believed that the purpose of reading was to produce acceptable English grammar.

Ellis, R. (1980). Learning to read in a second language. *Reading, 14*(2), 10-16.

> Ascertains the manner in which second-language children utilize different strategies as they read aloud. The author examined the reading performance of 12 Asian children who were learning English. The author discovered that the more able readers were better at decoding at the semantic level, whereas the less able readers failed in this regard and instead attempted to resort to a phonics strategy which was usually inadequate. The author concludes that second language readers may need to resort to different strategies than first language readers, specifically relying more on word recognition strategies.

Favreau, M., & Segalowitz, N. S. (1982). Second language reading in fluent bilinguals. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, *3*(4), 329- 341.

> Compares the reading rates of fluent adult bilinguals in their two languages with their listening rates to determine if slower reading rates in the second language are particular to reading or reflective of a more general second language factor. Sixty adult subjects participated in the study. The results indicated that the less fluent bilinguals ($n=30$) read more slowly and had slower listening rates in their second language. The reading and listening rates for the more fluent bilinguals ($n=30$) did not differ across the two languages although their reading rate was slower in their first language than was that of the less fluent bilinguals. Because the reading comprehension scores of the less fluent bilinguals did not significantly differ across the two languages, the authors conclude that the slower reading rate was reflective of a more general second language processing factor. They also point out that the similarity in reading and listening rates across the two languages for the more fluent bilinguals may have been a result of the participation of these subjects in an immersion program for six or more years.

Goldman, S. R., Reyes, M., & Varnhagen, C. K. (1984). Understanding fables in first and second languages. *NABE Journal*, *8*(2), 835-866.

> Explores how bilingual children utilize knowledge across their two languages to comprehend narrative fables. Tests how well the first language performance of 180 bilingual children in grades K-6 predicts their second language performance in terms of fable recall, questions related to character motivation, and questions related to fable morals. The results indicated that the first language performance of children in grades 1-6 significantly correlated with their second language performance. This was not true, however, for the kindergarten children. The authors also note that by first grade, the bilingual students indicated on the character motivation questions that they aurally comprehended 70% of the stories presented in their second language although it was not until fourth grade that they indicated at least 60% comprehension on the recalls. The children's answers regarding the fable morals generally were consistent across the two languages and demonstrated a developmental trend. Although the authors interpret their findings as evidence for transference of knowledge related to fable comprehension across the two languages by bilingual children, they also acknowledge that the level of second language proficiency will constrain the children's comprehension of text in the second language.

Gonzalez, P. C., & Elija, D. V. (1979). Error patterns of bilingual readers. *NABE Journal*, *3*(13), 15-25.

> Analyzes the reading errors of 75 Spanish-English bilingual students (grades 2-9) on the McLeod GAP Comprehension test in an attempt to ascertain a pattern of language difficulties. Contrary to previous research, bilingual readers were found to minimally use native language cues in second-language reading.

Grove, M. (1981). Psycholinguistic theories and ESL reading. In C. W. Twyford, W. Diehl, & K. Feathers (Eds.), *Reading English as a second language: Moving from theory*. Monograph in language and reading stories, No. 4. School of Education, University of Indiana.

Synthesizes psycholinguistic and schema research from first-language and second-language reading. Research from second-language miscue analyses specifically are reported. The author concludes that second language readers are affected by their ability to use language cues and by the interrelationships between their schema and those of the text.

Haddad, F. T. (1981). First language illiteracy--second language reading: A case study. In S. Hudelson (Ed.), *Learning to read in different languages* (pp. 32-44). Papers in applied linguistics: Linguistics and literacy series: 1. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Compares the oral miscue analyses of three Arabic children learning to read in English. One of the children was literate in the native language (Arabic) while the other two were not. The researcher discovered that the child who already was literate in Arabic utilized syntactic and semantic cues to approach oral reading in English while the two children illiterate in their native language utilized grapho-phonic cues. Although the latter children's oral reading revealed more word-for-word accuracy, they demonstrated less recall than the other subject, indicating that they were not as proficient as the former subject in English reading comprehension.

Horowitz, R. (1984). Orality and literacy in bilingual-bicultural contexts. *NABE Journal*, *8*(13), 11-26.

Summarizes literature that focuses on the oral-literate relationship and applies this knowledge to bilingual-bicultural educational contexts. Three different models of reading comprehension are reviewed, and the implications that such models hold for bilingual-bicultural readers are explored. Suggestions for further research include examining how the oral and literate traditions are incorporated in texts, and how this may affect comprehension, learning, and social growth.

Hudelson, S. (1981). An investigation of the oral reading behaviors of native Spanish speakers reading in Spanish. In S. Hudelson (Ed.), *Learning to read in different languages*. Papers in applied linguistics: Linguistics and literacy series: 1. Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Replicates Goodman's 1964 study of primary school children's reading of isolated words in a list as compared to their reading words in a context, except that the subjects are third-grade native Spanish-speaking Mexican-American children who read in Spanish. The results indicate that more words were read correctly in context than were read incorrectly in isolation, and that some of the words which had been read incorrectly in isolation were later read correctly in context. The author concludes that the children used more than the graphophonic information on the page and incorporated knowledge about the Spanish language as well as their own life experiences in order to derive meaning from the text.

Johnson, P. (1981). Effects on reading comprehension of language complexity and cultural background of a text. *TESOL Quarterly*, *15*(2), 169-181.

Examines the language complexity and cultural origin of different texts to determine their effect on the reading comprehension of 49 Iranian ESL students as compared to 19 American native English-speaking students. Cultural origin of text affected ESL students' comprehension to a greater degree than syntactic and semantic complexity. Native English speakers were affected by both the cultural origin of text and its linguistic complexity. ESL readers understood adapted texts of foreign cultural background better than unadapted texts, suggesting that careful selection of materials is necessary for ESL readers.

Lebauer, R. S. (1985). Nonnative English speaker problems in context and English classes: Are they thinking or reading problems. *Journal of Reading*, *29*(2), 136-142.

Highlights the reading problems of nonnative English speakers. Considers that there may be problems due to lexical, syntactic, non-linguistic, rhetorical, or cultural sources. Points out that when a nonnative English speaker is having trouble reading, the teacher should try to locate the source of difficulty and then work to correct the problem.

Magiste, E. (1979). The competing language systems of the multilingual: A developmental study of decoding and encoding processes. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, *18*(1), 79-89.

Attempts to determine the effect of the second-language acquisition process on bilingual Swedish-German high school students by focusing on the development of decoding (comprehension) and encoding (production) and by looking at the influence of more than two languages on the subjects' ability to decode and encode as measured by reaction time. The experimental subjects were 163 German-Swedish bilinguals and 24 trilingual students between the ages of 13 to 18. The control group consisted of 20 Swedish-speaking monolinguals, who were matched in age, sex and socioeconomic status with the multilinguals. A cross-sectional method was used in a longitudinal study covering a span of 17 years. A 2 x 3 x 4 factorial design was employed: two languages--German and Swedish, three groups--monolinguals, bilinguals, and trilinguals, and four test conditions. Results showed that it took 6 years of residence in Sweden before the bilingual's ability to encode in Swedish was comparable to their ability in German, and 4 to 5 years before their ability to decode in Swedish was comparable. The author considers that the bilinguals' longer reaction times in both languages are evidence for an interdependence model of bilingual storage.

Mestre, J. P. (1984). The problem with problems: Hispanic students and math. *Bilingual Journal* (pp. 15-20).

Reports on research examining the problem-solving strategies of Hispanic bilingual college students. The findings presented are from a study with 60 bilingual Hispanic college students and 73 nonminority English-speaking college students. The majority of both groups were engineering majors. The research question asked to what extent the bilingual students were as adept as the native speakers in understanding problems and developing strategies of attack. Based on a series of studies, the authors report that the Hispanic students had a greater tendency to misinterpret problems due to language subtleties even when they were familiar with the vocabulary used in the problems. The Hispanic students also committed variable-reversal errors twice the frequency of nonminority students. However, the greatest difference in performance related to the speed with which the two groups of students completed a cloze reading test and a problem-solving test. The authors suggest that the Hispanic students were slower on both tasks due to problems with language. They point out that the role of language in problem solving needs to be re-examined.

Muchisky, D. M. (1983). Relationships between speech and reading among second language learners. *Language Learning*, *33*(1), 77-102.

Attempts to determine whether phonological encoding is used by readers of English as a second language. Thirty-five ESL students of varying proficiency at the University of New Mexico were tested for reaction time after reading phonemic, graphemic and synonym pairs of words under two conditions, shadowing and non-shadowing. In the shadowing condition, students read the word pairs aloud, and in the non-shadowing condition they read them

silently. *T*-tests were used to test for differences between the two conditions. Significant differences were found between the two conditions on the three tasks, with the students reading faster under the shadowing condition. This finding is opposite of what has been found with first language readers. However, it should be noted that children's reading comprehension scores did not significantly correlate with their reaction times under either of the two conditions. The author concludes that oral production curtails first language interference and improves reaction times.

Padron, Y. N., Knight, S. L., & Waxman, H. C. (1986). Analyzing bilingual and monolingual students' perceptions of their reading strategies. *The Reading Teacher, 39*, 430-433.

Compares the cognitive strategies bilingual and monolingual pupils use while reading. Twenty-three bilingual (English and Spanish) and 15 monolingual third- and fifth-grade pupils were interviewed individually, while reading orally, to determine what strategies they used while reading text. Strategies were sorted into 14 categories. Three of the 14 strategies were statistically significant by language group. Monolingual pupils reported that they used concentrating, noting/searching for salient details, and self generated questions significantly more often than did bilingual students. Monolingual pupils also reported using significantly more strategies than bilingual readers. (IRA)

1.4 General Studies

Bloome, D., & Green, J. (1982). The social contexts of reading: A multidisciplinary perspective. In B. A. Hutson (Ed.), *Advances in reading/language research: Volume 1* (pp. 309- 338). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Presents theoretical constructs that view reading as a social process. Research from the areas of sociolinguistics, ethnography, literacy, and sociology of education are examined and integrated into a preliminary framework. The authors conclude that reading should not solely be viewed as a cognitive-linguistic process but also should be viewed as a social activity where the reading participants negotiate social interaction.

Johnston, P. (1985). Understanding reading disability: A case study approach. *Harvard Educational Review, 55*, 153-177.

Conducts case studies of three adult male disabled readers. The three subjects were age 45, 26, and 43, and their reading levels according to the Analytical Reading Inventory were second grade, third grade, and early kindergarten. Two of the men had quit school at the end of eighth grade, one in 11th grade. Intelligence was not formally assessed, but their occupational levels indicated normal intelligence. Each subject participated in eight 1- to 2-hour sessions that involved interactive assessment, spontaneous and elicited introspection and retrospection, elicited think-aloud reports, and oral reading. Presents and discusses the data within the general categories of problems in the conception of reading, strategies used in reading, anxieties, attributions, and goals and motivations. Concludes that much of the past research on reading disability has tended to dwell on minutiae, without considering the psychological or social contexts of the reading disability. Suggests that in lieu of continuing to research neurological and processing deficit models, it is necessary to consider more seriously explanations that stress combinations of anxiety, attributions, maladaptive strategies, inaccurate or nonexisting conceptualizations of the reading process, and motivational factors. (IRA)

Juel, C. (in press). Beginning reading. In P. D. Pearson, R. Barr, M. Kamil, & P. Mosenthal (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research, Volume III.*

Delineates the need for a model of the reading acquisition process that would document how the psychological, social, and instructional aspects interrelate. Points out that models of skilled reading do not necessarily apply to beginning reading. Reviews literature related to the development of such a model, identifying key questions that still need to be addressed by researchers. The author also discusses factors that have been identified in research as affecting the child's development from a prereader to a reader. She recommends that more attention needs to be directed to the rapid and early attainment of lower level skills by beginning readers if children's reading problems are to be resolved.

Lipson, M. Y., & Wixson, K. K. (1986). Reading disability research: An interactionist perspective. *Review of Educational Research*, *56*(1), 111-136.

Argues for a paradigm shift in reading disability research that would view reading disability from an interactive perspective instead of from a pathological or causative one. The interactive perspective would focus on how well readers read different types of texts under varying conditions. This would change the focus of research from isolating causal factors or factors which differentiate poor and good readers to examining the interrelatedness of factors and conditions that affect reading. The authors contend that this approach would be more valuable in fostering instructional alternatives for reading. To illustrate their argument, they briefly review the history of reading disability research and current reading disability research from both the causal and interactionist perspectives.

Stanovich, K. E. (1980). Toward an interactive-compensatory model of individual differences in the development of reading fluency. *Reading Research Quarterly, 16*(1), 32-71.

Examines different models of reading, especially top-down and bottom-up models, in an effort to explain individual differences in reading fluency at different age levels. Since neither of the above models accurately explained the research, interactive and compensatory models were probed, using data from good and poor readers, age and grade changes, and finally, fluency of adult reading. Since good readers have been shown to have superior strategies for comprehending and remembering large units of text, it was posited that they recognize words automatically, whether by one means or another, and that recognition is accomplished unconsciously so that attention can be directed at integrative recognition processes. (IRA)

Stanovich, K. E. (1982). Individual differences in the cognitive processes of reading: I. Word decoding. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 15*, 485-493.

Concentrates on the processes involved in the reading of individual words as identified from the research literature. Although the evidence cited is sometimes contradictory, the author argues that we need to look at a convergence of evidence employing a wide variety of methodologies. Conclusions resulting from such an analysis are on firmer ground than those that come from a single task. Literature supporting a strong relationship between the ability to recognize words and reading comprehension is cited. The research does not support the conclusion that deficits in early visual information processes operations are an important cause of reading difficulty, but rather that the relationship is minimal or nonexistent. However, the author argues that there is considerable research support indicating that the ability to use a phonological code to access the lexicon is related to reading fluency. (IRA)

Stanovich, K. E. (1986). Matthew effects in reading: Some consequences of individual differences in the acquisition of literacy. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *21*(3), 360-406.

Constructs a model of classifications for different cognitive processes affected by individual differences in reading ability. Reviews a large amount of literature dealing with individual differences in the cognitive processes of reading. Proposes that either reciprocal causation, organism-environment correlation, or developmental change are the causes of individual differences in reading. Speculates that some of these factors may operate so that those students with the most ability derive the most benefits from school while those who start school with the greatest handicaps receive the fewest benefits. The author recommends that future research should determine whether schooling and instructional differences are producing so-called "Matthew effects" (the rich get richer and the poor get poorer).

2.0 Instructional Programs

The studies in this section discuss the design, implementation, evaluation, and effectiveness of instructional programs or school models. The references have been organized under three subheadings: bilingual programs, compensatory programs, and other programs.

2.1 Bilingual Programs

Baker, K. (1987). Comment on Willig's 'A meta-analysis of selected studies in the effectiveness of bilingual education'. *Review of Educational Research*, *52*(3), 351-362.

Attempts to demonstrate that Willig's meta-analysis was not an appropriate method for the type of material that was reviewed. The author proposes that Willig did not review the same body of literature as he did and that Willig and Baker addressed different questions. He concludes that narrative review is superior to meta-analysis because "only the narrative reviewer can fully assess the strength and weakness of a study and evaluate it as a whole to determine what is and is not valid in a study." He feels that there is no need for a "federal mandate" for bilingual education.

Bruck, M. (1982). Language-impaired children's performance in an additive bilingual education program. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, *3*, 45-60.

Tests the effects of a French immersion program on the academic achievement and language development of 27 kindergarten and first-grade children who were considered to be language impaired in their first language (English). After two years of participation in the French immersion program, the children's performance on a battery of tests was compared to that of a control group of English-speaking language-impaired children who were enrolled in English- medium instruction ($n=27$), a control group of French-speaking children enrolled in French-medium instruction ($n=34$), and a control group of English-speaking children enrolled in English-medium instruction ($n=29$). MANOVA and ANOVA were conducted on the test data. The results indicated that the English-speaking language-impaired children who participated in the French immersion programs demonstrated comparable cognitive, first language, and academic skills as compared to the English-speaking language impaired children enrolled in all-English programs. Furthermore, their French aural development was comparable to that of the English-speaking control group also enrolled in French immersion programs although their French oral production and literacy skills were lower. The author concludes that the language-impaired children who were in the French immersion program acquired proficiency in a second language without adversely affecting their Native language skill development or their academic, cognitive, or social development. She interprets her findings as contradicting Cummins' threshold hypothesis and as supporting evidence for the influence of social psychological factors on the academic and cognitive development of language minority children.

Cazden, C. B. (1984). *Effective instructional practices in bilingual education*. Unpublished manuscript.

Critically discusses the relevance of the Significant Bilingual Instruction Features (SBIF) Study for bilingual education. The author contends that the effective teaching framework used in the SBIF study has to be reviewed from a bilingual education perspective and not from the monolingual framework upon which the SBIF study was based. In support of her argument, she cites second-language research findings which were ignored in the SBIF study. She also critiques some of the features considered to be effective in the SBIF study by questioning how the tasks were implemented in the classrooms and by discussing their potential ramifications for learning. Finally, the author questions whether tasks that were tied to improved scores on achievement tests should be the desired goals of instruction.

Cummins, J. (1979). Linguistic interdependence and the educational development of bilingual children. *Review of Educational Research*, *49*(2), 222-251.

Presents the threshold and developmental interdependence hypotheses. The threshold hypothesis contends that bilingual students need to attain two levels of linguistic competence in their two languages in order to avoid cognitive deficits. Cummins proposes the first threshold of bilingual competence allows students to avoid negative cognitive effects, while the second threshold allows students to benefit in terms of superior cognitive growth. The developmental interdependence hypothesis was developed by Cummins to account for the relationship between first and second language skills and the types of schooling that are associated with the differential performance of bilingual students. He argues that middle-class children perform well in immersion programs because their first language has been developed and maintained in the home and school. Lower-class language minority children, however, need strong first-language programs to promote first language proficiency so that second-language learning can take place. He concludes that the interaction between educational treatments, child input, and process variables must be understood in order to comprehend children's achievement in different types of bilingual programs.

Curiel, H., Stenning, W. F., & Cooper-Stenning, P. (1980). Achieved reading level, self-esteem, and grade as related to length of exposure to bilingual education. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, *2*(4), 389-400.

Investigates the benefits of a bilingual education program. Two groups of Mexican-American seventh-grade students were compared in terms of English reading level, self-esteem, and grade-point average (GPA). The experimental group ($n=86$) had been enrolled in one or more years of bilingual education in elementary school, while the control group ($n=90$) had been enrolled in an all-English monolingual program. No significant relationship between the dependent variables and the length of time spent in the program was discovered. The bilingual group's language skills were lower than the monolingual group's at the seventh-grade level although the bilingual group showed significant gains in English-language skills between sixth and seventh grade. No significant differences were found between the two groups on the self-concept score. There was a significant difference in GPA at the sixth-grade level with the bilingual group outscoring the monolingual group. The authors conclude that the Spanish-English bilingual program was beneficial for the experimental students who began school with no or limited English skills.

Doebler, L. K., & Mardis, L. J. (1980). Effects of a bilingual education program for Native-American children. *NABE Journal*, *5*(2), 23-28.

Examines bilingual education and its effects on second grade Choctaw Native-American students. All of the students in the study were native speakers of Choctaw and none of them were fluent in English. Twenty-six of the students were taught in Choctaw by paraprofessionals while 37 were taught solely in English by certified teachers. Reading instruction in Choctaw followed a phonetic approach while reading instruction in English was based on the Ginn 360 series. The Metropolitan Achievement Test was administered as a pretest and again as a posttest in April. Analyses of covariance for the April results showed no significant between-group differences in the areas of reading, math, and language arts. The Choctow group significantly outperformed the English group in science and social studies, however, the author suggests that the Choctaw students would continue to benefit if they remained in the bilingual program.

General Accounting Office. (1987, March). *Bilingual education: A new look at the evidence* (Report GAO/PEMD-87-12BR). Washington, DC.

Summarizes the findings of ten experts chosen for their expertise and diversity of opinion regarding bilingual education. The experts were asked to consider whether research knowledge agreed with 31 statements made by Department of Education officials regarding bilingual education. The experts were provided with 10 literature reviews and were asked to examine what is known about teaching students with limited English proficiency and whether this knowledge supports statements made by officials in the Department of Education which advocated the elimination of a native language component in the programs. Only two of the experts supported the Department of Education's contention that the use of the native language was unnecessary for the purpose of learning English. Seven of the ten experts did not believe that the evidence favoring alternative programs was convincing.

Hakuta, K., & Gould, L. J. (1987). Synthesis of research on bilingual education. *Educational Leadership*, *44*(6), 38-45.

Summarizes the latest research on bilingual education and provides examples of bilingual programs. The authors conclude that assessing each community's linguistic situation and needs is vital for bilingual program implementation and administration. They recommend two-way bilingual immersion programs where Anglo children learn a non-English language and minority children learn English as a way to conserve and develop national language resources.

Office of Research and Evaluation (1987, March). *Reading and writing instruction in three bilingual education programs in Connecticut, 1985-86.* Hartford, CT: Connecticut State Department of Evaluation.

Summarizes the findings of a formative evaluation of bilingual reading and writing instruction at grades 1 and 2 at three schools considered to be effective by their districts' bilingual director or by another professional in bilingual education. The three schools all have Spanish/English bilingual programs and are located in urban school districts. Six first-grade and five second-grade classrooms were included in the total sample of programs. In order to understand the effective features of the programs, quantitative outcomes were examined along with qualitative findings based on a combination of classroom observations, review of curricular materials and district guidelines, and informed interviews with school personnel. Two of the three schools reviewed met most of the criteria delineated in the qualitative framework but the third did not. The latter school initiated English reading instruction before Spanish reading instruction was firmly established, did not continue the children's instruction in Spanish after the children had begun to read in English, and did not provide ample reading materials in Spanish in the classroom or in the school library. While the district had curriculum guidelines for maintaining records of individual student progress, the guidelines were too long, the objectives did not match the materials used in class, there was no way to determine if the children met the guidelines, and the guidelines were not used by the teacher to record the children's progress. This bilingual program also was not well integrated with the rest of the school, and little support for the children's native language was demonstrated outside of the bilingual classroom. The test scores in Spanish and in English for children in the third program were somewhat lower than those of the other children. To what degree this pattern would continue is not known given that this report covers only the first year of a 2-year study. The report concludes that all three schools were effective based on outcome data. The qualitative data, however, suggested areas of improvement and concern.

Saldate, M., Mishra, S. P., & Medina, M. (1985). Bilingual instruction and academic achievement: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*.

Investigates the instructional effects of an elementary bilingual/bicultural program on 62 Mexican-American subjects over a three-year period. At the end of the students' third year ($n = 36$), significant differences between students enrolled in the bilingual and all-English programs were found on the WRAT, with students in the bilingual program scoring higher in English in the areas of reading and arithmetic, and in Spanish in reading, spelling, and arithmetic. The authors recommend bilingual instruction for minority language children and argue for the development of better assessment instruments.

Secada, W. G. (1987). This is 1987, not 1980: A comment on a comment. *Review of Educational Research*, *57*(3), 377-384.

Makes the case that the issues discussed by Baker and de Kanter in 1981 and 1983 are not relevant in 1987. Points out that Baker and de Kanter were responding to proposed regulations that would have made bilingual education mandatory, but which were later withdrawn. Today the issue is not that of a mandate, but whether or not a program should have a specific focus. Supports Willig's decision to exclude foreign studies from her review because these studies involve quite different populations and have different outcomes as goals. The author points out that new and better primary research has been completed since the early 80's and that these studies should be used in today's debate over bilingual education rather than continuing to focus on yesterday's news.

Willig, A. C. (1985). A meta-analysis of selected studies on the effectiveness of bilingual education. *Review of Educational Research*, *55*(3), 269-317.

Reports the results of a meta-analysis of 28 studies used in the Baker and de Kanter (1981) narrative review of bilingual education effectiveness. Once methodological inadequacies of the studies were statistically controlled, small to moderate differences favoring bilingual education were found in English for reading, language skills, mathematics, and total achievement and in other languages for reading, languages, mathematics, writing, social studies, listening comprehension, and attitudes toward school or self. The author discusses the methodological inadequacies and their relationship to the original statistical findings reported in Baker and de Kanter and to the effect sizes in her study. She points out that her findings underscore the weakness of bilingual education research. Additional discussion of bilingual education research is provided, and suggestions for improvement are made.

Willig, A. C. (1987). Examining bilingual research through meta-analysis and narrative review: A response to Baker. *Review of Educational Research*, *57*(3), 363-376.

Responds to Baker's critique of the author's former work and attempts to help readers understand the problems of research in bilingual education. Willig builds a case for employing meta-analysis based on the need for careful scrutiny of all aspects of a study and the use of interrater reliabilities. She proposes that narrative review is more prone to reviewer bias than meta-analysis. She also responds to the use of foreign studies by noting the differing contexts and goals of the Canadian immersion studies. Willig concludes that Baker's work is "permeated with serious flaws and faulty conclusions." She ends by calling for quality research both in primary studies and research reviews.

2.2 Compensatory Programs

Allington, R. L. (1980). Teaching reading in compensatory classes: A descriptive summary. *The Reading Teacher*, *34*, 178-183.

Summarizes the general characteristics of compensatory reading instruction in United States schools. The original study was conducted in 1971 by the Educational Testing Service (ETS) from a survey of principals and teachers in schools of all types from across the United States. The ETS data were reanalyzed and interpreted by a committee of IRA members. General descriptions of schools, goals, instructional time allocations, instructional organization, and of the students themselves were summarized from a survey of over 500 schools and 1500 teachers. Included among the general characteristics were: (a) increasing numbers of children experienced reading difficulties as grade level rose; (b) compensatory reading programs, while viewed as supplementary, supplanted regular instruction in 2 out of 3 cases; and (c) as few as 1 teacher in 4 seemed to meet the minimum standards for classroom teachers developed by IRA. (IRA)

Allington, R. L., Stuetzel, H., Shake, M., & Lamarche, S. (1986). What is remedial reading? A descriptive study. *Reading Research and Instruction*, *26*(1), 15-30.

Investigates Chapter I remedial reading instruction and its coordination with reading instruction in the classroom. Five classrooms and Chapter I instruction in four different school districts were observed over a 6-month period. Remedial reading students did not seem to receive additional direct reading instruction or teacher-directed reading of connected text during the remedial sessions. On the other hand, these children generally did not miss comparable instruction in their regular classrooms because when they were participating in the remedial sessions, the other children were involved in independent seatwork. The authors recommend that remedial reading programs need to be reorganized so that more time-to-learn through teacher-directed reading of connected text with a comprehension emphasis is facilitated.

Becker, W. C. (1977). Teaching reading and language to the disadvantaged: What we have learned from field research. *Harvard Educational Review*, *47*(4), 518-543.

Examines the direct instruction model and its relevance to economically disadvantaged children. A deficit view of poor children results in the recommendation that a vocabulary program be developed which would identify core vocabulary and vocabulary learning techniques for instruction. The author relies on his and his associates' 9 years of teaching experience with over 65,000 children as well as a literature review as source material for the article. He concludes that massive reorganization of school systems is required to help poor children acquire the necessary vocabulary for academic success.

Becker, W. C., & Gersten, R. (1982). A follow-up of Follow Through: The later effects of the direct instruction model on children in fifth and sixth grades. *American Educational Research Journal*, *19*, 75-92.

Assesses the later effects of a Direct Instruction Follow Through program for low income fifth- and sixth-graders who had completed the first- through third-grade program. Children were administered all subtests of the Metropolitan Achievement Test, Intermediate Level, and the Reading subtest of the Wide Range Achievement Test (WRAT). Reading decoding, as assessed by Levels I and II of the WRAT were found to be significant ($p < .005$) across five sites and two grade levels when compared with children who had not attended the program. However, when compared with national norms, these subjects lost ground in 3 years after completing the program. (IRA)

Boehnlein, M. (1987). Reading intervention for high-risk first-graders. *Educational Leadership*, *44*(6), 32-37.

Reviews the Reading Recovery program developed by Marie Clay and currently in use in the State of Ohio. The program claims extraordinary results. After an average of 15 weeks, totaling 30-40 hours of 1-on-1 instruction, 90% of those children who scored in the bottom 20% of their class on a reading pretest were placed in the average reading group and continued to perform at this level. Procedures for teaching the reading lessons and implementing the teacher support system are described. The article ends by reminding the reader that intervention is more cost effective than remediation.

Clay, M. M. (1987). *The early detection of reading difficulties* (3rd ed.). Auckland, New Zealand: Heinemann.

Describes assessment procedures and instructional strategies that evolved out of a research program which initially focused on how well teachers dealt with slow readers. Different approaches were subsequently tested in a clinical setting over a two-year period. Some of the more successful methods were implemented in the classroom in an attempt to remediate the reading failure of 122 six-year-olds. Follow-up studies of the children's progress were conducted one to three years after the children's participation. The findings indicated that children who originally scored at low levels were scoring at average levels at the end of the program and maintaining gains over an extended period of time. Based on these findings, the author outlines a comprehensive approach for remediating reading failure, termed Reading Recovery. Areas that are stressed include early intervention, assessment based on detailed and frequent observation of the child's reading performance, 1-to-1 tutoring, and accelerated instruction designed to foster the child's self-monitoring and independence from the teacher.

Columbus Public Schools. (1987). *Final evaluation report, language development component, CLEAR-Reading Recovery Program, 1985-86.*

Evaluates the CLEAR-Reading Recovery Program which served 224 first-grade pupils in Ohio. The results indicated that the mean growth for CLEAR Reading Recovery students at the end of the school year was substantial at 8.5 normal curve equivalent (NCE), as compared to some amount at 2.6 NCE for children enrolled in the alternative CLEAR program and no amount at .2 for children in the Instructional Aide program. However, the costs were higher for the CLEAR-Reading Recovery program ($342 per NCE point gain) as compared to the costs for the regular CLEAR program ($140 per NCE point gain) or the first-grade Instructional Aide program ($262 per NCE point gain). Twenty-six percent of the 155 pupils who were discontinued or who received 60 lessons or more were retained in first grade, and of the 67 students who were enrolled in a school with a compensatory program, 30 percent received remedial services. The evaluators recommend that funding be continued, but that the high rate of first-grade retention be explored. They also suggest that earlier identification of pupils who may be eligible for special education services needs to be considered if larger percentages of students continue to qualify for Chapter I services.

Kawakami, A. J., & Au, K. H. (1986). Encouraging reading and language development in cultural minority children. *Topics in Language Disorders*, *6*(2), 71-80.

Delineates specific components of the KEEP reading program which were responsible for helping at-risk students of Polynesian-Hawaiian ancestry score near national intervention norms on standardized reading achievement tests. Classrooms in the KEEP laboratory school were observed. Two types of events were examined, large-group story reading lessons

and small-group reading lessons. It was found that by focusing on the background knowledge of the students and by incorporating a talk-story style of interaction, learning was enhanced and facilitated. The authors recommend that instruction of at-risk students should focus on the children's strengths.

Levin, H. M. (1988). *Structuring schools for greater effectiveness with educationally disadvantaged or at-risk schools*. Unpublished paper prepared for the Commission on Public School Administration and Leadership of the Association of California School Administrators, Stanford University, CA.

Addresses issues dealing with school structure and management for meeting the needs of at-risk or disadvantaged students, who are defined as students from minority, poor, and non-English speaking backgrounds. Levin proposes the notion of the accelerated school as a solution to the problem of raising the performance of these students to grade level. Features of this program include a language based curriculum, cooperation between the schools and parents in setting goals and obligations of the school, and an extended school day along with peer and cooperative learning.

Madden, N. A., & Slavin, R. E. (1987, April). *Effective pull-out programs for students at risk*. Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the American Educational Research Association, Washington, DC.

Reviews three different types of pull-out programs that have been found to be effective for students at risk of school failure. An adaptation of the best-evidence synthesis method is used to evaluate the effectiveness of diagnostic-prescriptive programs, tutoring programs, and computer-assisted instruction programs. The authors conclude that both the tutoring and computer-assisted instruction programs have proven to be more effective than the more numerous diagnostic-prescriptive programs. However, they note that the computer-assisted instruction programs are more costly than the peer and parent volunteer tutoring programs. The authors conclude that achievement of at-risk students may be increased by applying proven models. They suggest that elements of successful programs need to be identified and that effective, reliable models need to be researched and developed for future programs.

McGill-Franzen, A. (1987). Failure to learn to read: Formulating a policy problem. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *22*(4), 475- 490.

Documents how reading failure is being redefined as a learning disability instead of as a social disadvantage. Reports that compensatory education programs such as Title I reading programs are declining in the numbers of children served in comparison with special education programs which are growing. Notes that the trend at the governmental and local school levels seems to be moving away from programs which view socioeconomic factors as causes of reading problems and, thus, can be treated or remediated, toward programs which view educational failure as a permanent part of the child's capability. Demonstrates that this trend also is reflected in the type of professional research that has been published within the last 20 years. Recommendations include a thorough examination of how different programs operate, as well as coordination between classroom teachers, special education teachers, and compensatory education teachers. The author calls for more involvement of reading specialists in the formulation of policies that affect children who are experiencing reading failure.

McLaughlin, T. F., Big Left Hand, P., & Cady, M. (1979). Effects of the behavior analysis model of Follow Through on reading achievement of Native American elementary school children. *Reading Improvement*, *16*(4), 314-316.

Presents achievement data for children in grade K-3 who were continuously enrolled in the Northern Cheyenne Behavior Analysis Model of Follow Through. Achievement data were collected from 1970-1978 using scores on the Wide Range Achievement Test. Numbers of pupils, labelled cohorts, ranged from 2 to 71. Results indicated that 18 of the 22 cohorts of pupils achieved at or above grade level. Testing at the end of grade three revealed a range from 2.9 to 5.9. (IRA)

Slavin, R. E., & Madden, N. A. (1987, April). *Effective classroom programs for students at-risk.* Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the American Educational Research Association, Washington, DC.

Examines the research on classroom organization models as it relates to at-risk elementary school students, excluding programs designed for non-English speakers. The procedure used for the review is that of best-evidence synthesis: a combination of meta-analytic and narrative review. The bulk of the material reviewed was obtained from the Joint Dissemination Review Panel, which is a U.S. Department of Education panel that oversees the evaluation of programs supported by government funding. Three types of programs were found to be effective: continuous progress, individualized instruction, and cooperative learning. The authors conclude that a part of the Chapter I budget should be used to fund, evaluate, and analyze components of these three programs.

2.3 Other Programs

Barnett, W. S., & Escobar, C. M. (1987). The economics of early educational intervention: A review. *Review of Educational Research.*

Critically reviews 20 different research studies which examined the costs and effects of early educational intervention programs. An assessment of the conclusions drawn from the studies is made. Six of the 20 studies were examined in more detail because of their greater perceived validity. The authors conclude that the evidence supporting early intervention as an economically efficient strategy is "persuasive but uncomfortably thin." They suggest that better methodological procedures be used in future research, such as true experimental design and more sophisticated statistical analysis.

Comer, J. P., Schraft, C. M., & Sparrow, S. S. (1980). *A social skills curriculum for inner city children.* New Haven, CT: Yale Child Study Center.

Evaluates the success of a preventive mental health model which was field tested in a low-income black community in an effort to improve school climate and over-all academic performance. The project was based on the view that mental health services should be used for both child-changing and school-changing. A system for school governance was implemented which replaced bureaucratic management with a system of democratic participation. The school governance plan along with a program for parent participation succeeded in bringing about desired changes in such areas as amount and quality of parent participation; school climate as reflected in student absenteeism, behavioral crises and suspensions; and increased student academic achievement. The author concludes that the academic and social achievement of inner-city children can be improved by using this approach.

Corno, L., & Snow, R. E. (1984). Adapting teaching to individual differences among learners. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teaching* (pp. 605-629). Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association.

Examines current hypotheses concerning the adaptation of teaching to individual differences among learners. Reviews supportive research, instructional programs, and teaching practices. Presents the ideal structure of an adaptive teaching system. Three major criteria for the evaluation of adaptive teaching programs are formulated: (a) Are the common goals of instruction met by all students and, in particular, by those students low in initial cognitive aptitude--prior knowledge and scholastic ability--who would ordinarily not be predicted to attain the common goals through conventional instruction? (b) Are there inequities in such areas as retention, transfer, or enrichment of learning that are preserved or produced by the program in reaching the common goals? (c) Are there any students who are particularly ill-served by the program relative to "conventional wisdom?" The instructional programs and teaching practices reviewed include Individually Guided Education, Adaptive Learning Environments Model, direct instruction, and cooperative learning. The authors recommend that the effectiveness of adaptive teaching programs needs to be evaluated by utilizing the aptitude-treatment interaction (ATI) framework. They note that the ultimate aim of research on teaching is to focus on how individual teachers can best adapt to individual students.

Finn, J. D., & Resnick, L. B. (1984). Issues in the instruction of mildly mentally retarded children. *Educational Researcher, 73*(3), 9-11.

Lists the major effects of different types of programs designed for children with different labels. The implications of these findings for the placement and labeling of children are examined and suggestions for future research are offered. The authors cite evidence that questions the differential treatment of emotionally and mentally retarded children from learning disabled children and children receiving compensatory education. They consider that specific features of effective instruction are being identified and that these techniques are useful for teaching a wide range of children. They recommend the development of (a) measurement systems that describe the major dimensions of learning environments, (b) criterion referenced tests, and (c) observational methods for slow learners.

Gersten, R., Miller, B., David, G., Morvant, M., & Green, W. (in press). Teachers helping teachers: The fragile role of the consulting teacher. *Educational Leadership*.

Discusses the results of two intervention programs which used teacher consultants to help low-achieving schools significantly improve academic achievement. The first intervention program was based on a mastery learning model where the teachers were encouraged to allocate more time to academics, accelerate their pace through the curriculum, and follow structured teachers' guides developed by the district to accompany the basal reading and math series. The teacher consultants hired for this program were trained by the local district. The second program included materials with highly detailed procedures for explaining and reinforcing new concepts, correcting student errors, and motivating students. The teacher consultants in this program received extensive training as part of a federal grant. Nine consulting teachers in four schools were observed for 45 days, with all of the 105 teachers in the four schools being interviewed. The researchers found that the second group of teacher consultants was perceived by the classroom teachers as being more helpful. Eighty percent of the teachers said that they received specific suggestions for teaching low performing students as compared to 50 percent of the teachers in the first program. Similarly, 87 percent of the teachers in the second program said that the consulting teachers modeled teaching strategies as compared to 32 percent of the teachers in the first program. The quality of feedback from the consulting teachers in the second program was rated 4.4

out of a total of 5 points. The researchers conclude that for consultant teachers to be effective, they must receive quality training to be skilled teachers themselves. The type of training consultants should receive is delineated.

Katims, M., & Jones, B. F. (1985). Chicago mastery learning reading: Mastery learning instruction and assessment in inner-city schools. *Journal of Negro Education*, *54*(3), 369- 387.

Describes the instructional materials and features that distinguish the Chicago model of mastery learning instruction and addresses how data from mastery learning instruction can be used as a basis for improvement in instruction and pupil achievement. To answer needs of principals interested in monitoring an individual school's performance and to meet the needs of a district superintendent interested in identifying schools that may require additional instructional support, test results from the 1979 and 1980 administrations of the Iowa Test of Basic Skills were inspected in various ways. Scores from 32 classrooms in a Chicago school were compared with scores of 30 classrooms prior to implementation of mastery learning instruction. Pretest scores were identical in both years, but the mean posttest gain in 1980 (after implementation) was 9.0 months compared with 7.4 months in the previous year. A statistically significant decrease was achieved in the correlation between classroom pretest and classroom gain, supporting the effects of mastery learning instruction. To inspect for school effectiveness, means and standard deviations were calculated for age cycle medians, and showed an increase in mean achievement with declining variance. (IRA)

Leinhardt, G. (1980). Transition rooms: Promoting maturation or reducing education? *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *72*, 55-61.

Performs a study to note the effects of assigning pupils with poor academic prognoses to transition rooms prior to first grade as opposed to integrating these pupils into a regular classroom. In addition, the effect of the New Reading System (NRS), an individualized, code-emphasis approach, was investigated. Thirty-two pupils, identified as transition-eligible, and 44 pupils who were placed in the transition rooms constituted the population for the study. Pretest data consisted of scores on the First Grade Screening Test; posttest data were the total reading scores on the Stanford Achievement Test. Transition eligible pupils received reading instruction in regular classrooms in either a basal reader or NRS, depending on the class to which they were assigned. Transition room pupils all received NRS instruction. End of year tests indicated that NRS pupils in regular classrooms performed better than NRS pupils in transition rooms. Also, pupils in NRS regular classrooms performed better than did their basal reader counterparts. (IRA)

McConnell, B. (1989). Education as a cultural process: The interaction between community and classroom in fostering learning. In J. B. Allen & J. Mason (Eds.), *Risk makers, risk takers, risk breakers: Reducing the risks for young children*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann Educational Publications.

Presents two case studies which discuss the schooling received by children of the Northern Cheyenne Indian tribe in Southeastern Montana and migrant Chicano children in the Rio Grande Valley of South Texas. The author demonstrates how the parents' involvement in the schools caused the children's academic achievement to improve. In the case of the Northern Cheyenne, parents worked as aides, and the tribe received control of the school from the United States government. While in the South Texan town of LaGrulla, parents did the actual teaching while they were supervised by certified teachers. The author concludes that well-run programs which prioritize parental and community involvement can have a significant impact on literacy learning for minority children.

Schweinhart, L. J., & Weikart, D. P. (1986). Early childhood development programs: A public investment opportunity. *Educational Leadership*, *44*(3), 4-12.

Argues that high-quality preschool programs are proven, effective means for helping traditionally at-risk children do better in school and avoid later problems associated with school failure. The authors propose that programs based on Piaget's ideas have great potential for long-term effects on social, intellectual, and physical development of children. They conclude by underscoring the need for economic investment and political will in making these programs work.

Stevens, R. J., Madden, N. A., Slavin, R. E., & Farnish, A. M. (1987). Cooperative integrated reading and composition: Two field experiments. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *22*(4), 433-454.

Reports on two studies that examined the effects of implementing a cooperative learning model (CIRC) in the areas of reading and writing instruction. Third- and fourth-grade students (Study One, $N=461$; Study Two, $N=450$) were grouped in heterogeneous learning teams for reading, writing, and language arts instruction. Emphasis was placed on (a) paired oral reading, text prediction and summarizing; (b) direct instruction of comprehension and metacognitive activities; and (c) team practice. Writing skills were taught through a process approach that involved peer conferences for planning, revising, and editing. In both studies, students in the CIRC program attained significantly higher standardized posttest scores in reading comprehension and language expression than those not enrolled in the program. The authors conclude that student achievement in reading and writing may be improved when state-of-the art principles of classroom organization, motivation, and instruction are implemented.

3.0 Instructional Strategies, Curriculum, and Practices

The literature in this section focuses on instructional practices and innovations at the classroom level. Reviews of curricular material also are included. The section is divided into two parts: first language instruction and second language instruction.

3.1 First Language Instruction

Allington, R. L. (1980). Poor readers don't get to read much in reading groups. *Language Arts*, *57*, 872-876.

Compared the number of words read by children in the good and poor reading groups in 24 grade one and two classrooms. Observers in the classrooms either noted the pages read (orally or silently) or audiotaped the instructional session. An analysis of variance was then used on the mean number of words read by pupils. Good readers read more than twice as many words per session as poor readers. Poor readers were seldom asked to read silently either individually or as a group. (IRA)

Allington, R. L. (1983). The reading instruction provided readers of differing reading abilities. *The Elementary School Journal*, *83*, 548-559.

Reviews literature related to the differential instruction of good and poor readers. The author argues that differences in children's reading abilities may be related to differences in the type of instruction that the children receive as much as they are related to differences in individual learning styles or aptitudes. The following recommendations are made for improved reading instruction: (a) taperecord and evaluate the type of reading instruction provided, (b) provide poor readers with a second reading session, (c) increase the amount of silent reading assigned to poor readers, (d) give poor readers an opportunity to read easy material on a daily basis, (e) focus on developing the ability of poor readers to self-monitor their own performance, (f) decrease the assignment of worksheets and workbooks. The author suggests that additional research needs to investigate the differential instruction of poor and good readers as well as the effects of such differences.

Altwerger, B., Edelsky, C., & Flores, B. M. (1987). Whole language: What's new? *The Reading Teacher, 41*(2), 144-154.

Describes and answers questions about whole language. The authors define whole language not as an instructional practice but as a set of beliefs or a perspective that undergirds language, literacy, and content learning. Reading, writing, speaking, and listening are viewed as interrelated aspects of language development. Because the purpose of language is communication, the best means for written and oral language development is extensive exposure to authentic tasks. Assessment is based on "kid watching" and children's individual progress as illustrated by their actual work rather than scores on standardized tests. The authors point out that whole language is not a new term for teaching skills in contexts nor is it a new term for the whole word approach, language experience approach, or open classroom. They consider it to be a new theory and point of view about language, literacy, and content learning.

Anderson, R. C., Mason, J., & Shirey, L. (1984). The reading group: An experimental investigation of a labyrinth. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *10*, 6-38.

Examines whether a meaning emphasis or an emphasis on accurate oral reading produces better recall and speed and accuracy of pronunciation. In the first of two experiments, 259 third graders were included as subjects. Of these, 161 were administered an adapted test to assess introversion-extroversion, test anxiety, and internal locus of control. Based on teacher judgment, children were assigned to homogeneous or heterogeneous ability reading groups consisting of four pupils each. Half of the groups received a lesson in which meaning was emphasized, half received a lesson in which accurate, fluent oral reading was stressed. Materials consisted of 36 unrelated sentences, varying in interest and in readability. Recall of sentences and speed and accuracy of pronunciation of difficult words from the sentences were assessed. In Experiment 2, 86 third-graders were randomly assigned to the two treatment conditions but individually given 14 sentences with easier words. Results of both experiments indicated that a meaning emphasis gives better results with average and above average readers regardless of the difficulty of interest of the materials, length of the task, or grouping arrangements. In Experiment 2, findings suggested that a meaning emphasis was also superior for poor readers, provided the task was within their ability range. Greater lesson mastery was achieved when children were taking a turn than when they were following along. Interest accounted for 33.8 times as much variance in sentence recall as readability. (IRA)

Au, K. H. (1981). Participation structures in a reading lesson with Hawaiian children: Analysis of a culturally appropriate instructional event. *Anthropology and Education Quarterly*, *11*(2), 91-115.

Analyzes a reading lesson in the Kamehameha Early Education Program (KEEP) in Honolulu, Hawaii, using ethnographic and sociolinguistic techniques. Demonstrates the similarity between the lesson and a speech event from the children's speech community called talk story. Nine different participant structures are identified in the lesson, with about half of them resembling those found in talk story. The author concludes that appropriate instructional contexts need to be provided in order for minority children (a) to learn basic academic skills and content and (b) to adapt to conventional school situations.

Blanchard, J. S. (1980). Preliminary investigation of transfer between single-word decoding ability and contextual reading comprehension by poor readers in grade six. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, *51*, 1271-1281.

Examines the transfer of single-word decoding training to contextual, literal, and inferential reading comprehension of below average reading sixth graders. Subjects were taught to read all the words that were used in a passage (content specific) or were taught to read another set of words, none of which appeared in the passage (non-content specific). After learning the words, all pupils read the passages and their reading comprehension was assessed. This procedure was carried out each of four days, using a different fifth grade passage from the McCall-Crabbs Standard Test Lessons in Reading each day. All the words in a story were presented; the average number presented each day was 84. Presentation was exposing each word and saying it until a child could identify all words. The 60 urban South subjects were ar least one year behind grade placement in total reading scores on the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills, but were able to read at least 90% of the 110 words on Coleman word list. The latter test was used to screen out children with poor visual memory. IQ on the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test was covariate. The 60 children were divided into groups of 30 very poor (VP) readers and 30 poor (P) readers on the basis of reading achievement scores. The average IQs of VP and P readers were 77 and 88 respectively and average reading grades were 3.1 and 4.6 respectively. Half of the VP and half of the P subjects were assigned to the content specific method. The other half of each group was assigned to the non-content specific method. The content-specific training group answered significantly more literal and inferential questions correctly than did those given non-content specific training. P group comprehended significantly more than VP group, but there was no significant interaction between method and reading ability. (IRA)

Brown, A. L., & Palincsar, A. S. (in press). Guided cooperative learning and individual knowledge acquisition. In. L. Resnick (Ed.), *Knowledge and learning: Issues for a cognitive psychology of instruction*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Reviews the theoretical claims behind group learning procedures, explains the theoretical rationale behind reciprocal teaching, and presents research findings regarding its effectiveness. In the first section, the authors explore the relationship between group learning and individual learning, identifying key factors that appear to facilitate collaborative cognition. Vygotsky's zone of proximal development, expert scaffolding, and the Socratic dialogue also are discussed in terms of how they promote internalization, or individual conceptual development. Reciprocal teaching of comprehension strategies is introduced as a method that involves cooperative learning, expert scaffolding, and apprenticeship. Research findings from reciprocal teaching studies with middle and primary school students are presented. The individual performance of students is summarized, and samples of teacher-student dialogue are provided. The authors consider that their findings demonstrate that academically marginal children can acquire encapsulated inert knowledge. They point out that future research needs to investigate how well similar children can be helped in their internalization of knowledge.

Butterfield, R. A., Demos, E. S., Grant, G. W., May, P. S., & Perez, A. L. (1979). A multicultural analysis of a popular basal reading series in the International Year of the Child. *Journal of Negro Education*, *48*(3), 382-388.

Analyzes the Houghton Mifflin (1976) reading series from a multicultural viewpoint, examining the series for bias with regard to race, sex, class, handicap, and age. The analysis indicates that none of the stories depict Asian-Americans although there are stories that portray Asians. There are a small number of all black stories and multicultural stories in which blacks are major characters. There are no all-Hispanic stories, only one multicultural story in which a Hispanic child is the principal character, and only one informational article about Chicano history. There is one multicultural story about Navajos and a multicultural story in which a Navajo is a principal character. Two stories also have principal characters who are Native Americans. The majority of the stories are about whites. In these stories, the women still are portrayed in supportive roles. The focus on the elderly in the stories is considered to be positive. However, only two stories deal with handicapped people, and the treatment is limited to individuals who are blind. The authors conclude that bias still exists in the series although it is not as blatant as before.

Carbo, M. (1987). Matching reading styles: Correcting ineffective instruction. *Educational Leadership*, *44*(2), 55-62.

Promotes the matching of reading instruction to the particular reading styles of students by presenting a brief summary of reading-style research. Phonics instruction is viewed as the major culprit responsible for children failing to learn how to read because it only helps children who have an auditory/analytic style of learning, while most children, it is claimed, are global/tactile/kinesthetic learners. The author suggests that the emphasis on phonics in norm-referenced tests should be eliminated. She also recommends that less emphasis be placed on children's performance on phonics-related tasks for grouping decisions and placement. Her argument centers on the proper identification of children's reading/learning styles and then teaching to them accordingly.

Carnine, D., & Kinder, D. (1985). Teaching low-performing students to apply generative and schema strategies to narrative and expository material. *Remedial and Special Education*, *6*(1), 20-30.

Assesses the relative effectiveness of teaching low-performing children to answer and ask schema-based questions and to generate images and summary statements with both narrative and expository prose. Twenty-seven low-comprehending fourth through sixth graders served as subjects. Subjects were randomly assigned to the generative-learning intervention or schema-based treatment. Material for the training sessions (as well as for screening and testing) were taken from third- or fourth-grade programs currently in use with remedial and special education classes. They included 500-600 word easy-to-decode stories, as well as expository passages of the same length and difficulty focusing on social studies or the natural sciences. In the generative-learning intervention, children were asked to form an image, describe the image, and eventually summarize the entire passage. For the schema- based intervention, questions highlighted a story's structure by focusing on essential elements. The grammar was adapted for expository test. Questions were initially asked by the teachers and later pupils were reminded to generate questions as they read silently. There were 10 training sessions for narrative text and 9 for expository. Transfer measures (comprehension questions and retellings based on new selections) were administered immediately after training and again about two weeks later. Results showed that following training, scores were significantly higher, both statistically and educationally. The only significant difference between treatments favored the schema treatment on the expository maintenance test. (IRA)

Dreeben, R. (1987). Closing the divide: What teachers and administrators can do to help black students reach their reading potential. *American Educator*, *11*(4), 28-35.

Ascertains that differences in reading achievement between black and white first graders with similar aptitude may be due to district policies and teacher practices which could be avoided. The conclusions are based on research by the author and Rebecca Barr who investigated the reading achievement of approximately 300 first-graders from three different school districts. Their findings indicate that the children's levels of learning were strongly related (a) to the amount of time spent on reading, (b) to the richness of the curricular material covered, and (c) to the appropriate matching of instruction to the ability level of the children. The reading achievement levels of children of comparable ability were not affected by differences in their socioeconomic status nor by their race when they received similar instruction.

Dreeben, R., & Gamoran, A. (1986). Race, instruction, and learning. *American Sociological Review*, *51*, 660-669.

Summarizes research that examined the social organization of classroom instruction in order to understand why black children tend to learn less than nonblack children. The study encompassed 12 full day observations of 13 first-grade classrooms from three school districts. The focus of the observations was on the type of reading activities included in the reading instruction, the length of the activities, and the instructional setting. The 300 children included in the study also took a reading readiness test at the beginning of the school year along with tests of word learning (based on the material used in each class) at three intervals throughout the year and a test of general first-grade achievement at the end of the year. Measures of each child's socioeconomic status, age, sex, and race also were obtained. The results indicated that differences in aptitude, race, socioeconomic status, and structural position (ability group assignment) alone could not explain why nonblacks learned more than blacks. The authors conclude that sources of variance due to technological conditions, defined as time spent in instruction and coverage of curricular materials, were better predictors.

Durkin, D. (1987). A classroom-observation study of reading instruction in kindergarten. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, *2*, 275-300.

Records the type of reading instruction provided in 42 kindergarten classes over a 2-day observational period. Interviews with teachers and principals also were conducted. The interviews revealed that few of the principals had taught grade school and that the teachers adhered to Gesell-like philosophies that encourage delaying reading instruction until children are "ready." Reading-readiness activities were considered appropriate for kindergarten while reading was not. The teachers viewed phonics as a readiness activity and devoted 70% of the reading-activity time to it. Interview and observational data alike suggested that whole group activities dominated the kindergarten instruction with little individualization. This is in spite of the fact that a great deal of testing occurred using developmental tests that teachers saw as helpful in identifying children's individual problems. Durkin recommends that future research should focus on children as well as teachers and that reading and early childhood specialists need to collaborate more in order to improve available resources.

Feitelson, D. K. B., & Goldstein, Z. (1986). Effects of listening to series stories on first graders' comprehension and use of language. *Research in the Teaching of English*, *20*(4), 339- 356.

Tests the effect of reading aloud a volume of stories in series format to disadvantaged first graders. Experimental and control classes were randomly selected from the same school. Children in the experimental classes ($n = 139$) were read to in a whole class setting for the last 20 minutes of the school day for 6 months. Children in the control classes continued their usual learning activities. Children who had been read to significantly outscored the children in the control classes on measures of decoding, reading comprehension, and active use of language.

Fleisher, L. A., Jenkins, J. R., & Pany, D. (1979-80). Effects on poor readers' comprehension of training in rapid decoding. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *15*(1), 30-48.

Examines the effects on comprehension of increasing poor readers' speed and accuracy in decoding words. Subjects in the two experiments conducted were grade four and five pupils. In Experiment 1, subjects were 14 good readers with an average score of approximately 7.6 on the Metropolitan Achievement Test, and the 22 poor readers with an average score of approximately 2.75. Participants in Experiment 2, were 11 good readers who scored at least one grade above level and 33 poor readers who scored at least one year below grade level. For the first experiment, half the poor readers were trained to decode the words from two stories written at the sixth- and seventh-grade levels. They practiced the words until they could identify each in about one second, then read the words in a list form. This was followed by orally reading the passage (with aid from E), completing a cloze test on the same passage, and completing a comprehension test composed of six factual and six inferential questions. Although the trained good and poor readers did not differ in the number of isolated words read per minute or number of errors in isolation or context, the good readers scored significantly higher on all comprehension tasks and in number of words read per minute in context. The trained poor readers performed significantly better than untrained poor readers on the four tests of word recognition, but not on any of the tests of comprehension. Experiment 2 was similar, except that a phrase-reading training procedure for poor readers was added and more sessions in word decoding were conducted. In general, the results of the second experiment replicated the first. Decoding training did increase decoding rate and accuracy, but it did not improve comprehension performance. (IRA)

Fisher, D. F. (1980). Compensatory training for disabled readers: Research to practice. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, *13*, 134-140.

Reviews research directed at identifying perceptual and cognitive components in reading and their dysfunction in disabled readers. Reading disability is discussed as a disruption in the processing sequence. The article provides a compensatory training technique for teaching sight vocabulary, proposed as a means of reacquainting the reader with the rewards of text and normalizing the oculomotor system.

Garner, R., Hare, V. C., Alexander, P., Haynes, J., & Winograd, P. (1984). Inducing use of a text lookback strategy among unsuccessful readers. *American Educational Research Association*, *21*(4), 789-798.

Reports results from an intervention study designed to foster lookback strategies in unsuccessful readers. Twenty-four upper elementary and middle school students attending a summer remedial clinic participated in the study. Half of them were randomly assigned to the control group and half to the experimental group. Three hints about why, when, and where to use text lookbacks were presented to the experimental subjects and practiced in a three-day training period, while the control subjects received training in other text-processing strategies. After a five-day interval, the children's ability to discern when to lookback was tested by having them read two passages and orally answer three questions. Each child was tested individually and videotaped. The children's performances were coded by three evaluators according to accuracy of response use of lookbacks or memory, use of sampling, presence of investigator cueing, and presence of "Can I look back" query. A series of one-way ANOVAs on percentage correct, with lookbacks and percentage of looks used when needed, revealed significant differences between the two groups, with the experimental group outperforming the control group. The authors suggest that the students were not accustomed to using lookback strategies because they thought they were illegal. They recommend that teachers explicitly teach when lookback strategies are appropriate.

Hansen, J., & Pearson, P. D. (1983). An instructional study: Improving the inferential comprehension of good and poor readers. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *75*(6), 832-829.

Tests the effectiveness of teaching inferential reading skills to poor readers by specially trained classroom teachers. Twenty fourth-grade students, of whom 10 were poor readers and 10 were good readers, were randomly assigned to the experimental group, and 20 fourth-grade students, of whom 10 were good readers and 10 were poor readers were randomly assigned to the control group. The experimental treatment was given over a period of 10 weeks and consisted of (a) prereading discussions, which focused on how the students' experiences related to situations in the text, including their predictions of what might happen in the text, and (b) postreading discussions, which focused on answering questions that were not completely answered in the text. The post-treatment performance of the children was assessed by comparing the experimental group's performance with the control group's on worksheet questions related to the stories presented, questions related to a new story the children read without specific instruction, and questions related to a common story that all the children read. MANOVA and ANOVA procedures were used to analyze the data. Across the data, the poor readers performance on inferential questions was significantly superior for the experimental group than for the poor readers in the control group. There was no significant difference in inferential performance of the good readers. The authors conclude that the treatment was particularly effective for the poor readers. They consider that differential instructional practices in the past may partially account for why the poor readers performance in the experimental group appreciably improved, whereas the performance of the good readers did not.

Hatch, J. A., & Bondy, E. (1984). A double dose of the same medicine: Implications from a naturalistic study of summer school reading instruction. *Urban Education, 19*(1), 29-38.

Summarizes the findings of a naturalistic study of reading instruction provided to children in a remedial summer school program. Describes the problems that exist when a "materials-centered" approach to reading instruction is followed. Data collection included field notes, classroom observations, ethnographic interviews, and classroom maps. The results indicated that basal reading materials were the single most important influence on the reading program. The authors conclude that teachers and administrators need to become more responsible for providing quality instruction and less dependent on materials.

Hiebert, E. H. (1987). The context of instruction and student learning: An examination of Slavin's assumptions. *Review of Educational Research, 57*(3), 337-340.

Objects to the conclusions reported in Slavin's review of ability grouping research because it did not focus on instructional processes in the classroom. Considers Slavin's review to be of historical importance but warns that future policy should not be based on his findings. She recommends that researchers should conduct in-depth analyses of contexts that facilitate different learning tasks.

Hirsch, E. D., Jr. (1987). *Cultural literacy: What every American needs to know.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.

Proposes that the hidden key to effective education in America is a national curriculum which would focus on cultural literacy, or the core knowledge shared by most professional Americans. The author contends that one reason disadvantaged children have not performed well in American schools is that they are not taught the content which makes up this knowledge. Using schema theory as a theoretical base, the author explains that without shared background knowledge it is difficult for children to comprehend the authors' intent, and they also do not have the necessary information needed to integrate new with old learning. While not specifying how all of this knowledge is to be taught, the author suggests that some of the content could be presented to children in the early elementary grades through a rote method. A list of concepts that should be acquired by all American children is included in the book.

Lankford, R., & Riley, J. D. (1986). Native American reading disability. *Journal of American Indian Education, 25*(3), 1- 11.

Describes the conflicts that have developed between Native American schools and their surrounding communities. The first half of the article reviews the history of Native American education and alerts the reader to the problems and neglect inherent in the system due to the conflicting policy goals of assimilation and literacy. The second half of the article includes suggestions for teaching reading to Native Americans and an example of a culturally relevant text for Native American students. The author concludes that more cooperation is needed between reading specialists and the leaders of Native American communities and that culturally compatible teaching methods would help to improve the children's reading.

Logan, J. W., & Garcia, J. (1983). An examination of ethnic content in nine current basal series. *Reading Horizons, 23*(3), 165-169.

Investigates the extent to which stories depicting three ethnic groups (blacks, Hispanics, Native Americans) are contained in nine basal reading series (grades 1 through 6). A fourth group labeled "Multiethnic" included major characters from more than one ethnic group. Categories for coding ethnic story content were based on guidelines two publishing

companies use for the depiction of ethnic characters. The amount of content about ethnic groups among the major basal reading series analyzed is basically parallel with no single series offering more ethnic content for a particular group than another series. These basal series included more stories about blacks and multiethnic groups than about Hispanics and Native Americans. The total number of ethnic stories does not vary greatly among the series. (IRA)

McCormick, C. E., & Mason, J. M. (1989). Fostering reading for Head Start children with little books. In J. B. Allen & J. Mason (Eds.), *Risk makers, risk takers, risk breakers: Reducing risks for young learners*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann Educational Publications.

Proposes a home-based parent intervention program for parents of Head Start children that encourages interaction focused on reading-type activities. Fifty-one children in four Head Start classrooms were assigned to either the Book Recitation (BR) group or the Story Discussion (SD) group. The BR group listened to very short stories and memorized them individually and group. The SD group listened to stories and looked at pictures, but did not recite a text. The BR group outscored the SD group on six post-tests. These included letter naming, reading taught books, and reading new books. During the second year, about half of the original children still were in the study. Those children from the original BR group received six sets of materials in the mail. The SD group received worksheet activities that did not emphasize printed letters or words. Significant differences were found between the two groups on several measures which favored the BR group, e.g., the BR group could name more letter sounds, and parents reported that they looked at books more, asked to be read to, and could read and write more words than the SD group. The authors conclude that this program or one like it can help at-risk children become actively involved in literacy, giving them a better start in first grade.

McDermott, R. P. (1977). The ethnography of speaking and reading. In R. W. Shuy (Ed.), *Linguistic theory: What can it say about reading* (pp. 153-185). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Defines and explains ethnography and ethnography of speaking and reports on microethnographic research with reading groups. Focuses on the turn-taking process within one particular low reading group as compared to the turn-taking process observed in several upper reading groups. The author notes that the upper reading groups were characterized by smooth transference of turns, whereas, the low group was not. As a result, the low group spent only one-third of the time on reading. Also delineates three areas of potential conflict for second language learning: language conflict where second language children have to learn to decode an unknown language; dialect conflict where there may be language interference between the child's spoken language and the text; and communication conflict between the teacher and the student where there may be additional conflicts such as turn-taking.

Oakes, J. (1985). *Keeping track: How schools structure inequality*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Examines the tracking of students in public schools and how this causes negative effects for nearly all concerned. The author reviews the history of tracking in American schools and then looks at 25 present day, carefully selected schools to see how tracking affects students and teachers. The author concludes that heterogeneous grouping is better than homogeneous grouping and that equity in education should not be sacrificed in pursuit of excellence.

Palincsar, A. S., & Brown, A. L. (1984). Reciprocal teaching of comprehension-fostering and comprehension-monitoring activities. *Cognition and Instruction*, *1*(2), 117-175.

Reports findings from two instructional studies that were designed to improve the comprehension-fostering and comprehension-monitoring of seventh graders who were characterized as poor comprehenders. In the first study students in the experimental group were trained in summarizing, questioning, clarifying, and predicting text through a reciprocal teaching method modeled by one of the researchers. In the second study students were trained in the same skills but through a reciprocal teaching method modeled by their regular classroom teachers. The results of the first study indicated students in the reciprocal teaching group made significant gains on criterion tests of comprehension and maintained these gains over time as compared to a second group that received an intervention based on typical classroom practices. The students in the reciprocal group also made sizable gains in their generalization to classroom comprehension tests and transference to novel tasks. Qualitative analysis of the teacher-student interactions during reciprocal teaching revealed that the quality of the students' summaries and questions also improved. Similar findings were replicated in the second study. The authors acknowledge that the success of the intervention could be attributed to either the specific strategies trained or to the reciprocal teaching method. However, they believe that by first obtaining a "sizable, durable, and generalized effect," they then can conduct future research to pinpoint what was principally responsible for the success of the intervention.

Palincsar, A. S., & Brown, A. L. (1986). Interactive teaching to promote independent learning from text. *The Reading Teacher*, *39*(8), 771-777.

Defines reciprocal teaching and answers questions that teachers have asked regarding its implementation. Specifically explains the purpose of the four strategies (predicting, question generating, summarizing, and clarifying) that are developed and practiced throughout the student-teacher interactive dialogues. The authors also review how the method is to be initiated and developed in the classroom. Research results from five years of investigation are briefly summarized to answer questions regarding the effect of reciprocal teaching on children's reading comprehension, its implementation in large settings with heterogeneous groups, its use with content area instruction and narrative text, and how it differs from skill instruction.

Paris, S. G. (1984). Teaching children to guide their reading and learning. In T. E. Raphael (Ed.), *The contexts of school based literacy* (pp. 115-130). New York: Random House.

Introduces Informed Strategies for Learning (ISL) as a way to improve children's reading comprehension. This program is the instructional component of a research project designed to investigate the relationship between children's reading skills and their awareness of reading strategies. ISL aims to heighten children's metacognitive awareness of the reading task and to increase their ability to utilize different strategies for different purposes. The key instructional components of the program include informing students about the declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge required for successful reading comprehension; generating classroom discussion relevant to this knowledge; and providing guided learning through social interaction similar to coaching. The program is organized into half- hour group lessons that are designed to get students not only to use different strategies but also to think and talk about why, when, and how they use them. Lessons are divided into the following steps: informed teaching, metaphors for strategies and bulletin boards, group dialogues, guided practices, and bridging to content-area reading.

Short, E. J., & Ryan, E. B. (1984). Metacognitive differences between skilled and less skilled readers: Remediating deficits through story grammar and attribution training. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 76*, 225-235.

Evaluates the effectiveness of a story grammar strategy and attribution training on the reading comprehension of skilled and less skilled readers. Forty-two male fourth-grade poor readers were assigned to three groups. One group received both story grammar training (designed to increase comprehension monitoring) and attribution training (designed to increase awareness of effort in efficient reading). The other two groups received either story grammar training or attribution training. Fourteen skilled readers served as a contrast group in posttest assessments. Maintenance was assessed through free and probed recall; generalization was assessed through a metareading test and an error detection and correction task. The results showed that strategy training produced significant gains in comprehension. Only children receiving attribution training alone showed poorer performance than skilled readers. Partial support was obtained for generalization on the metareading assessment. (IRA)

Slavin, R. E. (1987). Ability grouping in elementary schools: Do we really know nothing until we know everything. *Review of Educational Research, 57*(3), 347-350.

Reacts to the comments of Adam Gamoran and Elfrieda Hiebert regarding his synthesis of ability grouping research. The author argues that it would be desirable to have more information about the specifics of different grouping plans insofar as instruction is concerned, but that the information we have on grouping practices is also important. This information is needed by school administrators who must make decisions based on present knowledge. The author concludes that we need more research on ability grouping and associated instructional practices.

Slavin, R. E. (1987). Ability grouping and student achievement in elementary schools: A best-evidence synthesis. *Review of Educational Research, 57*(3), 293-336.

Uses the best-evidence synthesis technique (a combination of meta-analysis and narrative review) to review research related to the effectiveness of ability grouping in elementary schools. The review indicates that there is little evidence to support the assertion that ability-grouped class assignment results in increased student achievement. Although there were a limited number of studies that investigated the procedure of regrouping within grade level for instruction in specific subjects, the author concludes that regrouping for reading and/or mathematics may be effective if the instructional pace and materials utilized are adapted to the students' needs. The author reports that there is evidence for regrouping students for reading across grade levels as in the Joplin Plan. Research on within-class ability grouping indicated favorable results for mathematics instruction, but the research regarding reading was too limited to be conclusive. The author concludes that students should be assigned to heterogeneous classes, and regrouped only in those subjects (e.g., reading and mathematics) for which reducing heterogeneity is important. Regrouping should be based on skill development in the subject and not on IQ or overall achievement measures. Regrouping assignments also should allow for frequent reassessments and flexibility in reassignments.

Stahl, S. A. (in press). Is there evidence to support matching reading styles and initial reading methods? *Phi Delta Kappan*.

Weighs the evidence behind Marie Carbo's proposal that beginning readers would do better if reading instruction matched their individual reading styles. The evidence produced by Carbo includes four studies; two of which are with beginning readers, while the other two are with learning disabled children. Stahl points out that three of the studies dealt with methods other than code-emphasis or global-holistic instruction. He also suggests that the results were possibly biased by the investigators who knew which children had been identified as possessing a certain learning style. Furthermore, only small numbers of children were included in the studies, and the studies were relatively short-term in nature. Finally, the fourth study may not have used beginning readers, as evidenced by pretest scores on the Gray Oral Reading Test that were about the second-grade level for both control and experimental groups. Stahl concludes that the current research on reading styles is not strong enough to warrant matching children's individual reading styles with particular reading methods.

Wallach, M. A., & Wallach, L. (1979). Helping disadvantaged children learn to read by teaching them phoneme skills. In L. B. Resnick & P. A. Weaver (Eds.), *Theory and practice of early readings: Volume 3* (pp. 197-215). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Argues that many poor children have trouble learning to read because they are not able to reorganize and manipulate phonemes; skills that are presupposed by standard reading-readiness curricula. In support of this premise, the authors report findings from previous research that compared the phoneme recognition of children enrolled in middle-class kindergartens to that of children enrolled in low-income kindergartens. An intervention program based on mastery learning that teaches phoneme identification skills to low-readiness first graders is outlined. In this program, children are first taught to recognize phonemes in words, to recognize letter shapes, to connect letters with their shapes, and to blend phonemes to form words. Then the child is introduced to text reading. However, all new vocabulary is taught through phoneme analysis before the text is seen by the child. The program is reported to be effective as measured by report card grades and Spache's Diagnostic Reading Scales, which examine word recognition and comprehension.

Williams, J. P. (1980). Teaching decoding with an emphasis on phoneme analysis and phoneme blending. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *72*(1), 1-15.

Presents a cost-effective, supplementary program called the ABDs of Reading that teaches learning-disabled children with reading difficulties the skills of syllable and phoneme analysis, phoneme blending, and decoding. Results from a two-year evaluation of the program indicated that the learning-disabled children in the experimental group performed better on general decoding skills than did the learning-disabled children in the control group. Not only were they able to decode more of the items presented in the program, but they also were able to decode novel items that had not been previously presented. The experimenter concludes that this type of program shows promise for use with learning-disabled children.

3.2 Second Language Instruction

Barrera, R. (1984). Bilingual reading in the primary grades: Some questions about questionable views and practices. In T. H. Escobar, (Ed.), *Early childhood bilingual education* (pp. 164-183). New York: Teachers College Press.

Critiques some widely held beliefs about teaching reading to children who speak Spanish as a first language in addition to reviewing relevant literature and offering suggestions for future research. The author rejects instructional models of reading which rely solely on phonics methodology in favor of reading methods which are more theoretically up-to-date. Suggests that reading for bilingual children is much more complex than what most practitioners currently believe. The author questions the view that reading should first be taught only in the first language. She recommends that any meaningful text is appropriate for bilingual children to read and that first language instruction should continue much longer than currently is being practiced.

Cohen, B. (1980). *Issues related to transferring reading skills from Spanish to English.* New York: Bernard Cohen Research and Development, Inc.

Explores the issues and problems facing the administrator who desires to develop a reading program for children whose stronger language is not English. Areas examined in this work are the identification of children who should receive bilingual education, the role of ESL in transferring reading skills, schedules for transferring reading skills, and whether or not transference problems are related to reading or language difficulties. Many patterns that are the same in Spanish and English are given as well as patterns that differ. The author concludes that enough information is available to provide for positive development in bilingual reading.

Cohen, S. A., & Rodriguez, S. (1980). Experimental results that question the Ramirez-Castaneda model for teaching reading to first-grade Mexican Americans. *Reading Teacher, 34*(1), 12- 18.

Presents the results of a study conducted with first-grade Mexican American students utilizing direct reading instruction based on precise behavioral objectives. Demonstrates that this approach is more effective than utilizing the "cultural learning styles" recommended by Manuel Ramirez and Alfredo Castaneda in 1974.

Diaz, S., Moll, L. C., & Mehan, H. (1986). Sociocultural resources in instruction: A context-specific approach. In *Beyond language: Social and cultural factors in schooling language minority students* (pp. 187-230). Compiled by the California State Board of Education, Los Angeles: Bilingual Education Office: Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center.

Builds upon Vygotsky's notion of zones of proximal development to investigate the discrepancy between the academic achievement of Chicano students and their unreached potential. After reviewing the different theoretical explanations for minority students' academic difficulties, the results of two studies are presented. In the first study, the students' reading ability in Spanish was taken as the optimal performance level for their English reading. When the English teacher saw that the students' reading lessons in Spanish were comprehension-based, she changed her impression of their reading potential in English. In the second study, students used ethnographic survey methods as part of their writing instruction. The authors consider that they elicited willing compliance from the students because they provided real purposes for writing. They recommend more flexibility in school organization in order to fully utilize the students' resources.

Ebel, C. W. (1978). A study of English as a second language reading instruction in bilingual programs. *NABE Journal, 3*(1), 55-64.

Focuses on vocabulary and its importance for readers of English as a second language. A review of relevant literature is presented along with findings from the author's dissertation based on observations of 25 ESL reading classes. The author states that the development of vocabulary and multiple meanings was a primary goal of the teachers she observed. She also reports that students were not allowed to continue in ESL reading classes once they had finished a second year first book and that they were observed to do very little actual reading.

Elley, W. B., & Mangubhai, F. (1983). The impact of reading on second language learning. *Reading Research Quarterly, 19*(1), 53-67.

Investigates the effect of intensive second-language reading on the English acquisition of second-language English learners (9-11 years old) in Fiji. A total of 530 subjects were randomly assigned by classroom to Shared Books instruction, Silent Reading instruction, or to a control group which was taught English through the traditional English-as-a-second-language ESL audiolingual approach. The subjects were literate in their first language and were participating in all English-medium classes. Approximately 250 books were sent to the Shared Book and Silent Reading groups five times throughout the initial 8-month period, and 100 books were sent in the 12- month follow-up period. Residual gains analysis was used to test for differences in English language performance (reading, listening, English structures, vocabulary, written composition, word recognition or oral sentence repetition) among the three groups, controlling for differences in the children's pre-test reading performance. The results indicated that children in the Shared Book and Silent Reading groups made significantly greater receptive gains than did the control group children at the end of the 8-month period, and significantly greater receptive and productive gains at the end of the 20-month period. The authors conclude that greater and repeated exposure to high-interest books through time set aside in the schools for reading can enhance second-language children's acquisition of receptive and productive skills in their second language more effectively than the amount of reading instruction they receive via the audiolingual method. No significant differences were found for the different techniques of reading instruction (Shared Books versus Silent Reading.)

Fillmore, L. W. (1982). Language minority students and school participation: What kind of English is needed. *Journal of Education*, *164*, 143-156.

Addresses the preliminary findings of a project undertaken to determine the school-related language skills needed by non-English-speaking (NES) and limited-English-speaking (LES) children in bilingual programs. To determine written language comprehension demands placed on learners, the linguistic demands of textbooks were analyzed following a text semantic analysis procedure. Written language production demands were analyzed through an examination of written assignment, including workbooks. Oral language comprehension and production demands were determined through observations of seven third-grade and five fifth-grade classrooms conducted over a four-month period. Examples of various oral language exchanges are presented. The author notes that there are differences between language skills needed to function competently in social situations and those that enable children to think and read. (IRA)

Gonzales, P. C. (1981). Beginning English reading for ESL students. *The Reading Teacher*, *35*(2), 154-162.

Attempts to provide answers to the following questions regarding reading in English for nonnative speakers: How can teachers assess the English language proficiency of their nonnative students? How can teachers determine the linguistic demands of basal reading materials? How can teachers prepare their students for the reading they will encounter and ensure text comprehension. Relevant literature is reviewed. A few suggestions are given for prereading, and a linguistic assessment model is presented. The author concludes that teachers need to adequately assess their students' language proficiency and then determine the demands of the reading materials. He also urges teachers to prepare students well before reading occurs.

Heath, S. B. (1985). Literacy or literate skills? Considerations for ESL/EFL learners. In P. Larson, E. Judd, & D. Messerschmitt (Eds.), *On TESOL: A Brave New World for TESOL* (pp. 15-28). Washington, DC: TESOL.

Uses the findings from two ethnographic, collaborative studies to propose the coordination of efforts by teachers, students, and researchers in order to learn more about different group's use of language and to help teachers be more effective in the classroom. In the first study, the researcher collaborated with the teacher of a basic English class of 18 students (14

black, 4 white) who had all been in special education classes designed for low-ability students. The students collected data for the researcher and corresponded with her about it. The process of learning to write and use language resulted in all of the students being promoted to regular English classes and in two of them being placed in the honors English class. The second study is similar in scope, but focuses on the collaboration of a class of predominantly Chicano students in South Texas and a researcher at Indiana University. The author concludes that being literate presupposes metalinguistic knowledge and the ability to speak and write for different purposes.

Hudelson, S. (1984). Kan yu ret an rayt en ingles: Children become literate in English as a second language. *TESOL Quarterly, 18*(2), 221-238.

Discloses how various strategies used for the teaching of reading and writing of English as a second language are based on outdated theories of language instruction. The author presents recent research findings and gives suggestions as to how these findings may be applied in the classroom. She considers that (a) children who speak little or no English are reading some of the print in their environment and are using their reading to increase their English, (b) ESL learners are able to read English before they have complete oral control of their language, (c) reading comprehension in a second language, as in a first, is influenced by the background knowledge and cultural framework that the reader brings to the text, (d) writing in a second language, as in a first, interacts with reading, (e) ESL learners can (and should) write English before they have complete control over the oral and written systems of the language, and (f) the processes of reading, speaking, and listening in a second language are interrelated and interdependent.

Mace-Matluck, B. J., Hoover, W. A., & Calfee, R. C. (1984). *Teaching reading to bilingual children study*. Austin, TX: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory.

Focuses attention on Spanish speaking children from low- income families in Texas. The study seeks to provide insight into (a) what constitutes a favorable learning environment for these children, (b) what instructional sequences and events promote successful and efficient learning of literacy skills and (c) what language and literacy outcomes of current schooling practices are appropriate.

Miller, R. (1982). Reading instruction and primary school education: Mexican teachers' viewpoints. *The Reading Teacher, 35*, 890-894.

Summarizes the educational experience of children educated in Mexico. The data collection included interviews with 30 teachers and 26 administrators in Mexico City and the results of a questionnaire answered by 300 Mexican primary school teachers. The following findings are summarized: (a) vital statistics of the participants, (b) attitudes of the teachers toward their training, (c) number of students per class, (d) adequacy of supplies, (e) use of official curriculum, (f) sex differences of students (g) time devoted to the various areas of reading (h) use supplemental materials (i) teachers' evaluation of the current method of reading instruction, and (j) typical activities in the classroom. The author concludes by informing United States educators that students taught previously in Mexico will not necessarily know cursive writing, will expect a more formal classroom atmosphere, will not have had formal instruction in spelling and will learn best from modeling. Strengths of the Mexican student are oral fluency and ability to work in a large group.

Saville-Troike, M. (1984). What really matters in second language learning for academic achievement? *TESOL Quarterly, 18*(2), 199-219.

Identifies the different factors that were involved in the year-long academic achievement of a sample of second-language children at the elementary school level. The subjects ranged in age from 6 years, 11 months to 12 years and were from seven different language backgrounds. All of them were literate in their native language, but had no prior exposure to English and came from families where at least one of the parents held a graduate-level degree. The Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills (CTBS) was the dependent measure. The children's English language proficiency was determined by their performance on a variety of English language tests. Data collection included videotapes of the students during recess and during their ESL and regular classrooms. Considerable variation in the children's use of English and academic achievement was documented. The only oral language factor that significantly correlated with the children's reading achievement was the number of different English vocabulary items that each child produced during the interview. English verbosity in the non-interview setting did not significantly correlate with the language proficiency test scores or reading test scores. In fact, some of the most talkative children were among the poorest achievers. Accuracy in English morphology and syntax also did not significantly correlate with the children's reading achievement. Those children who used their native language to discuss concepts presented in class achieved best in content areas as measured by tests in English.

Schon, I., Hopkins, K. D., & Davis, W. A. (1982). The effects of books in Spanish and free reading time on Hispanic students' reading abilities and attitudes. *NABE Journal, 1*(1), 13-20.

Investigates the effects of providing books in Spanish and 60 minutes of free reading time on Hispanic students' reading abilities and attitudes. One-hundred fourteen Hispanic children, ages 7-9, in grades 2, 3, and 4 in Tempe, Arizona, were involved in the study, 49 of the subjects were in the experimental group while 44 were in the control group. The Inter-American Series was employed to test reading. An ANCOVA was performed to determine which group experienced greater gains. In grades 3 and 4, the experimental group gained significantly more than the control group in Spanish reading comprehension, Spanish vocabulary and Spanish reading speed. The experimental group also improved significantly on a measure of reading attitudes. There were no significant between-group differences on the English reading posttests although large gains were made by both groups between the pre and posttests. The authors conclude that reading skill obtained in one language are transferred to the student's other language since reading gains were made by both groups in the languages in which they not instructed.

Viera, D. R. (1986). Remediating reading problems in a Hispanic learning disabled child from a psycholinguistic perspective: A case study. *Journal of Reading, Writing and Learning Disabilities International*, *2*(1), 85-97.

Uses findings from miscue research and the Reading Miscue Inventory by Y. Goodman and C. Burke (1972) to develop a remedial reading program for a Hispanic learning-disabled child. The child's progress after nine months suggested that the program was more effective in improving the child's reading comprehension strategies than a learning disabilities categorization would have been.

4.0 Teacher Decisions and Behavior

The articles in this section examine the role of the teacher in the classroom. Specific attention is given to teacher-student interactions.

Aaron, R., & Powell, G. (1982). Feedback practices as a function of teacher and pupil race during reading group instruction. *The Journal of Negro Education*, *51*(1), 50-59.

Investigates whether teacher feedback in small reading group sessions significantly varies with the race of the teacher or with the race of the students (black-white). Feedback from 38 second-grade teachers was categorized as achievement or classroom related behavior and evaluated as negative or positive by other teachers who had been trained in the use of a feedback schedule. Both black and white teachers' negative responses to black pupils' academic and classroom behaviors were significantly greater in number than for white pupils although black teachers proportionately gave fewer negative responses to black pupils' classroom behaviors than did white teachers. The authors suggest that the latter finding was due to the black teachers' greater empathy with black students.

Allington, R. L. (1980). Teacher interruption behaviors during primary-grade oral reading. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *72*(3), 371-377.

Examines differences in teachers' responses to the oral reading errors of children categorized as high and low readers. First-and second-grade children (*N*=267) from three different school districts participated in the study. The teacher and children's responses during reading instruction were tape-recorded. Significant between-group differences were found for teacher interruptions, with more interruptions occurring during the reading of the low students. Allington concludes that teachers are more likely to interrupt poor readers than good readers regardless of the type of reading error. He questions whether different interruption strategies are warranted at different levels of reading ability and recommends that additional research investigate this topic.

Au, K. H., & Mason, J. (1981). Social organization factors in learning to read: The balance of rights hypothesis. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *17*, 115-152.

Explores the "social organizational hypothesis", which states that classroom organization sensitive to the students' cultural background will be more effective in teaching the students to read. The authors combined ethnographic and correlational research methods to examine the effectiveness of two different teachers. One teacher, whom they labeled as high contact, was Hawaiian and had extensive experience working with Hawaiian children. The other teacher, referred to as low contact, was Anglo and had no previous experience teaching Hawaiian children. Both teachers worked with the same group of children: five Hawaiian and one Hispanic child. The authors discovered different participation structures and social events associated with each teacher, variability in the proximal indices the teachers used to measure effective teaching, and that the high contact teacher exhibited higher proximal index scores than the low contact teacher.

Borko, H., & Niles, J. (1982). Factors contributing to teacher's judgments about students and decisions about grouping students for reading instruction. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, *14*(2), 127-140.

Studies teachers (*n*=21) and student teachers (*n*=39) in order to determine what criteria each of the groups utilize to form reading groups. Short student descriptions were provided for 32 hypothetical students, and the subjects were asked to form three reading groups based on this information. The results indicated that student teachers used a pupil-centered approach to form their groups, while teachers used an approach that was both pupil-centered and content-centered. The author suggests that the next logical step would be to obtain more detailed information on how teachers make decisions by asking them to think through the process orally.

Brophy, J. (1981). Teacher praise: A functional analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, *51*(1), 5-32.

Reviews literature on teacher praise of student behavior. The author examines praise as a reinforcer of behavior, the frequency of classroom praise, its distribution, quality, and how it relates to student achievement. He concludes that praise should be specific and credible and used infrequently, contingent on certain behaviors.

Brown, A. L., Palincsar, A. S., & Purcell, L. (1986). Poor readers: Teach, don't label. In U. Neissen, (Ed.), *The academic performance of minority children: A new perspective*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Claims that "high risk" children--who are defined as minority children, poor children, and children who have difficulties early in their school career--are taught to exhibit counterproductive behaviors in school, and that adequate diagnosis of problems should replace the labeling of such children. Research by Shirley Brice Heath and Kathryn Au is reviewed to emphasize the incompatibilities that may exist between majority culture and its expectations, and the manner in which minority children are socialized. The authors believe that successful intervention strategies such as the technique used in the Hawaiian KEEP program need to be adopted. They advocate comprehension based instruction along the lines of their own Experience-Text-Relationship method. They conclude that success breeds success and that when students are successful, their attitudes about themselves will change as will their teachers' attitudes toward them.

Carrasco, R. L. (1979). Expanded awareness of student performance: A case study in applied ethnographic monitoring in a bilingual classroom. *Sociolinguistic Working Paper No. 60*. Austin, TX: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory.

Attempts to show how research can directly benefit classroom teachers. The researcher demonstrates the flexibility of ethnographic research methods by allowing his focus to shift as the study unfolds. In the process, he helps a teacher discover a Mexican-American child who initially was perceived as a slow learner but who displays hidden talents which are revealed on videotape. The author urges teachers to become "in the field researchers."

Collins, J. (1982). Discourse style, classroom interaction and differential treatment. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, *14*(4), 429-437.

Examines reading instruction in an integrated first-grade classroom in California and in a third-grade black classroom in Chicago in order to discern patterns of differential teacher response to students' reading performance. Conversational analysis was used as the method of analysis. In the California study the teacher used different instructional strategies with black working class students and white middle class students. Comprehension was the focus of instruction for students in the high groups while decoding was the focus in the lower group. In the Chicago study, students in the high groups received more comprehension practice, while students in the low group did not seem to share the same conversational rules as the teacher. The low groups in both studies made little progress in learning to read, while the students in the high groups made dramatic gains.

Cunningham, P. M. (1976-77). Teacher's correction responses to Black-dialect miscues which are non-meaning changing. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *12*(4), 637-653.

Investigates the view of Goodman and Buck that it is not dialect per se which causes difficulties for non-standard English-speaking children but rather the manner in which teachers react to their language. Teacher's attitudes toward miscues which were non-meaning changing were surveyed to see if they differed for black dialect-specific miscues and non-dialect-specific miscues. Subjects were students enrolled in graduate reading courses at four state universities (*N*=214). The subjects indicated that they would correct black dialect-specific miscues significantly more often than non-dialect-specific miscues. No correlation was found between the number of corrections of black dialect-specific-miscues and the number of items correctly identified as belonging to black dialect. While the subjects (mostly teachers) responded differently to black dialect-specific miscues and corrected them more often, the researcher feels this behavior is due mostly to ignorance of black dialect and not racism.

Erickson, F., & Mohatt, G. (1982). Cultural organization of participation structures in two classrooms of Indian students. In G. Spindler (Ed.), *Doing the ethnography of schooling: Educational anthropology in action* (pp. 132-174). New York: Holt, Rinehard and Winston.

Uses microethrography to compare the participant structures used by an Odawa Indian teacher and a non-Indian teacher with first-grade Odawa Indian students. Major social occasions, activities, and episodes in the two classrooms were videotaped throughout a school year. Special attention was given to the cultural organization of the classrooms and how the teachers exercised their authority. A major difference noted between the two teachers was that the Indian teacher did not single out individuals in the total group, speaking to the whole group in a loud voice but quietly and softly to individuals near her. The non-Indian teacher's comments were always public, and directions frequently were called out to individuals across the room. Although the participant structures between the two teachers were different, the non-Indian teacher did adapt to the cultural patterns of the students throughout the year. The authors consider that this adaptation was effective and similar to that fostered in the Hawaiian KEEP program.

Haller, E. J. (1985). Pupil, race, and elementary grouping: Are teachers biased against black children? *American Educational Research Journal*, *22*(4), 465-483.

Examines teachers' grouping decisions for reading instruction for evidence of racial influence. Data for the study was collected from 49 different classrooms and included 934 pupils in grades 4, 5, and 6. The results indicated a strong statistical relationship between race and the judgmental tone of teachers' remarks about reading and general ability. However, the author states that these perceptions were primarily associated with differences in measured reading achievement and not with race or socioeconomic status. The author concludes that grouping decisions are not unduly influenced by students' racial background and that research needs to focus on why there is an association between race and reading achievement.

Heath, S. B. (1978). Teacher talk: Language in the classroom. In *Language in education: Theory and practice*. Arlington, VA: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Analyzes the characteristics unique to teacher talk and suggests ways it can be varied. Methods for involving students in the analysis of classroom language are proposed. The author gives suggestions as to how teachers can monitor their speech in order to (a) vary monotonous routines and (b) be understood by all of their mainstream and minority students.

Moll, L. C., Estrada, E., Diaz, E., & Lopes, L. M. (1980). The organization of bilingual lessons: Implications for schooling. *The Quarterly Newsletter of the Laboratory of Comparative Human Cognition*, *2*(3), 53-58.

Focuses on how curriculum and instruction were organized in a dual maintenance bilingual program to develop reading skills. Twelve third-grade children were videotaped in their English and Spanish reading groups. The children were ability grouped for reading instruction in both the English and Spanish classes. The researchers contrasted what was happening in the ability groups in each of the settings and across the two languages. The researchers found evidence within the Spanish setting to suggest that there was a progression of behaviors from the lower- to the higher-ability groups which reflected the "teacher's implicit theory" of reading. When they contrasted the behavior across the two settings, however, they discovered that the English teacher underestimated the children's level of reading in English, and that this was due to the confounding of phonetic errors with decoding errors. Comprehension activities were almost entirely absent in the middle and high reading groups for the Spanish-speaking students. The researchers conclude that the problem was not due to a lack of transference of reading skills between the two languages, but instead due to the social organization of the lesson settings where the Spanish-speaking children were not given the chance to display their comprehension skills in English.

5.0 Student Characteristics and Behavior

The research reported under this heading describes aspects of student behavior that appear to be related to reading performance. The majority of the articles deal with learned helplessness or the identification of characteristics that distinguish good from poor readers.

Butkowsky, I. S., & Willows, D. M. (1980). Cognitive motivational characteristics of children varying in reading ability: Evidence for learned helplessness in poor readers. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *72*(3), 408-422.

Examines how students' self-perceptions relate to motivation and competence in the area of reading. The authors hypothesize that poor readers are more likely than average or good readers of similar IQ to view failure as a reflection of their ability, and success as a reflection of factors not related to ability. Seventy-two fifth-grade boys were designated poor, average, or good readers based on the differentiation between their IQ and reading test scores. Half of the subjects in each group were given reading and drawing tasks that were solvable over a 2-day testing period, while the other half were given unsolvable reading and drawing tasks. The children were interviewed regarding their initial expectancy of success on the tasks; if they attributed their success or failure to perform the task to ability, effort, task difficulty, or luck; and how well they thought they would do if they were given additional tasks of a similar nature. The amount of time they took to complete the tasks and that they persisted on the unsolvable tasks also was recorded. The results indicated that the poor readers had lower initial expectancies of success, gave up more quickly, attributed failure to internal and stable causes, attributed success to external causes, and anticipated less success following failure. The authors recommend that remedial programs teach children how to adapt to failure. They also conclude that their study has revealed some of the processes that contribute to the definition of a learning difficulty when evaluating children of similar IQs.

Crook, P. R., Gillet, J. W., & Richards, H. C. (1982). Teacher- rated reading achievement and social acceptance among elementary school children. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, *14*, (2), 191-195.

Investigates the idea that children who are identified by their teachers as good readers tend to be more socially popular in the early grades but that this tendency diminishes in the upper grades. Eighty-one children in second- and sixth-grades from a small town in rural Virginia served as subjects. The results confirmed the original hypothesis of the investigators.

Diener, C. I., & Dweck, C. S. (1978). An analysis of learned helplessness: Continuous changes in performance, strategy, and achievement cognitions following failure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *36*(5), 451-462.

Reports on two studies designed to distinguish between the responses made by what are designated as helpless and mastery-oriented children after they have failed to perform a given task. Children's explanations for failure were examined as were the hypothesis-testing strategies they employed. Seventy fifth-graders participated in study 1 and 60 fifth-graders took part in study 2. Helpless and mastery-oriented children were identified with the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Scale. After being given an impossible task to perform in study 1, helpless children believed they failed because of a lack of intelligence, while the mastery-oriented children attributed failure to either lack of effort, bad luck, fairness of the tester, or the increased difficulty of the task. In study 2 it was found that mastery-oriented children tended to search for remedies rather than looking for causes of failure, while the helpless children were characterized by attributions of failure. Helpless children also tended to verbalize solution irrelevant and negative-affect statements. The authors conclude that helpless children would benefit from both attribution retraining and training aimed at helping them control task-irrelevant cognitions. Self-instruction and self-monitoring are also recommended as strategies for use by helpless children.

Durkin, D. (1984). Poor black children who are successful readers: An investigation. *Urban Education*, *19*(1), 53-76.

Collects data on 23 poor black children who were identified as successful readers by their standardized reading test performance at the end of grade five, with the goal of identifying factors that contributed to the children's success. Students were tested for IQ with the WISC-R and for reading with the SRA Assessment survey. Interviews were conducted with the principals and teachers, and with 15 of the students and their parents. Classrooms also were observed and school records were examined. The findings revealed that the principals and teachers knew very little about the children that would differentiate them from the less successful black children. The children did read prior to attending school and they were successful in reading throughout school. Durkin credits the family as the single most important factor in their success.

Dweck, C. S., & Bempechat, J. (1983). Children's theories of intelligence: Consequences for learning. In G. S. Paris, G. M. Olson, & H. W. Stevenson (Eds.), *Learning and motivation in the classroom* (pp. 239-256). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Reviews research previously conducted by the authors on the relationship between children's beliefs about their own intelligence and their academic achievement. Children's beliefs are categorized as either an entity theory, which is performance based and relatively global and stable in nature, or as an instrumental-incremental theory, which is dynamic and involves continuous development and improvement. The authors point out that children's intelligence theories may determine the academic goals that they choose as well as affect how well they attain them. They consider the instrumental-incremental theory to be more desirable because children who ascribe to this theory will persist at tasks even when faced with adversity, while children who ascribe to the entity theory will be more prone to give up. Teachers' implicit theories of intelligence also are seen as affecting not only the development of children's intelligence theories but also children's performance in school.

Entwisle, D. R., & Hayduk, L. A. (1978). *Too great expectations: The academic outlook of young children*. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press.

Describes the rationale, design, and results of investigations of the development of self-evaluation in young children. The primary source of evidence was derived from a study of pupils in three first grades (each comprising three or four classes) for 1 or 2 years from initial school experience. Subjects comprised three groups: two groups of white children living in middle class neighborhoods and a working-class neighborhood group composed of 60% black and 40% white children. Extensive and detailed personal, sociological, and academic (including reading) findings are presented for each group, by cross-group comparison, and by developmental pattern. Results suggest that contrary to prevailing theory, black and white working class children start school with unrealistically high rather than unrealistically low expectations, at least in terms of probable school fulfillment. (IRA)

Johnston, P. H., & Winograd, P. N. (1985). Passive failure in reading. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, *17*(4), 279-301.

Examines the thesis that many problems of poor readers may be due to passive failure. In support of this thesis, the authors review literature in metacognition and attribution theory. They propose that a key underlying characteristic of passive failure is the student's perception that responses and outcomes are independent and that failure is attributable to low ability. Teachers' attributional responses to classroom behavior also are considered to influence their decisions about instructional interactions. Specific examples of instructional practices which foster passive failure in reading are presented. The authors recommend that passive failure be treated as a state and not a trait. They point out that preventing unsuccessful patterns of performance is easier than attributional retraining. Specific suggestions and areas for future research are noted.

Manning, M. M., & Manning, G. L. (1984). Early readers and nonreaders from low socioeconomic environments: What their parents report. *Reading Teacher*, *38*(1), 32-34.

Attempts to identify some differences between early readers and nonreaders from low socioeconomic backgrounds. Subjects were 10 kindergarten early readers paired by age, sex, and race with 10 kindergartners who were not reading. Early readers were identified by teachers by means of the Classroom Reading Inventory. Structured interviews were conducted with parents to obtain data about each child's development. The two groups did not differ in age of walking and talking. Nine early readers were reported as liking quiet games but only three nonreaders' parents indicated their children liked quiet activities. Eight early readers' parents and two nonreaders' parents stated that their children liked to look at books or magazines; all early readers but only four nonreaders were reported as liking to play with older children. Nonreaders watched TV an average of 17.4 hours per week and preferred cartoons and Sesame Street; early readers averaged 13.2 hours per week and tended to select different types of programs. Eight parents of early readers checked books out of the library; only one of the nonreaders' parents did so. Educational background of the two groups of parents was similar. Eight parents of early readers and four of the nonreaders' parents reported that they read for pleasure. (IRA)

Parsons, A. H. (1983). Self concept and reading achievement in the bilingual setting. *NABE Journal*, *8*(1), 29-40.

Examines the relationship among self-concept, biliteracy, and type of reading and language instruction received by 51 second-grade Athens, Ohio, children in a bilingual setting. A Piers-Harris Children's Self Concept Scale was translated and administered to measure self-concept. The author also developed a task self-esteem questionnaire to measure children's perceptions of their reading ability. The Metropolitan Achievement Test was used to measure reading achievement. ANOVA and correlational analysis were used. The author concludes that by accepting self-concept as a component in curricular goals, materials, and techniques, students and teachers are free to pursue creativity and to develop their potential.

6.0 Sociolinguistic Considerations

The studies included in this section emphasize the relationship between language and society. Dialect differences in particular are not viewed as a source of reading difficulty but as a reflection of different sociocultural backgrounds.

Bougere, M. B. (1981). Dialect and reading disabilities. *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, *14*(4), 67-73.

Reviews briefly pertinent research and theoretical positions on the relationship between vernacular Black English and reading achievement. Topics discussed are the deficient vs. different issue; some divergencies between vernacular Black English (VBE) and standard English; phonological and grammatical interference of VBE in beginning reading; and teachers' attitudes toward VBE. Recommends that teachers should receive instruction in VBE, that teachers of VBE speakers should avoid long periods of practice with materials and methods that emphasize isolated word sounds, and that the language experience approach should be used as part of beginning and remedial reading instruction. The author concludes that VBE is not the cause of reading disability, but that the attitude of schools and teachers are more critical.

Burke, S. M., Pflaum, S. W., & Krafle, J.D. (1982). The influence of Black English on diagnosis of reading in learning disabled and normal readers. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, *15*(1), 19-22.

Investigates the influence of Black English dialect features on the error scores of three oral reading tests for learning-disabled black children ($n=20$) and a control group of black children ($n=20$). The children were given the Gray Oral Reading Test, Gilmores Oral Reading Test, and the Spache Diagnostic Reading Scales. Each test was first scored according to its test manual criteria and then rescored eliminating from the error count any dialect miscue. ANOVA was performed on the data to determine if there were significant differences between these two scoring methods or between the two groups of children, and if there were interactions between scoring methods and type of child. The results indicated that the effect of removing dialect miscues significantly increased the children's scores on all three tests although the learning disabled children consistently scored lower than the control children. The authors point out that improvement in reading scores for the learning disabled children seemed to be dependent on the differing criteria used to determine reading level on the three tests, with the learning disabled children's performance improving more with the removal of dialect errors on the Gilmore test. They conclude that teachers of learning disabled children need to be aware of the differing criteria used on the oral reading tests and that all teachers need to be trained to recognize features of Black English.

Cazden, C. B. (1985). Social context of learning to read. In H. Singer & R. B. Ruddell (Eds.), *Theoretical models and processes of reading* (3rd ed., pp. 595-610). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Scrutinizes ethnographic and sociolinguistic research to illustrate how reading, and especially learning to read, is not simply a cognitive process but also a social activity. The role of classroom interaction is explored by describing studies that focus on the influences of time engaged in reading, differences in the focus of instruction, the complexities of reading group interaction, and peer group interactions in the upper intermediate grades. The fifth grade is seen as a critical turning point in this respect when reading scores drop for many students. Cazden recommends that the power of group interactions be used to construct viable contexts for learning to read.

Cazden, C. B. (1988). *Classroom discourse: The language of teaching and learning.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Discusses and reviews observational research related to the functional role of language use in the classroom. Specifically addresses the following questions: (a) How do patterns of language use affect what counts as knowledge and what occurs as learning? (b) How do these patterns affect the equality, or inequality, of students' educational opportunities? (c) What communicative competence do these patterns presume and/or foster? Related topics include student-teacher interaction patterns, peer interactions, teacher talk, and student talk. Cultural differences are discussed where relevant.

Cooley, R., & Lujan, P. (1982). A structural analysis of speeches by Native American students. In F. Barken, Brandt, & J. Ornstein-Galicia (Eds.), *Bilingualism and language contact: Spanish, English and Native American languages* (pp. 80-92). New York: Teacher's College.

Analyzes speeches given by eight monolingual Native American students in English and those given by four Native American elders in their native language. The authors discovered that both groups' speeches consisted of several topics in sequence with no explicated relationship. Topic changes were sudden and without much transition. However, there was tight cohesion within topics which usually was affected by co-referencing. When sources of information were given, the speakers focused on the sources of information more than they did on the information presented. The researchers consider that the students had modeled their elders speech patterns. They point out that Indian speech is structured and not rambling as typically stereotyped, although its structure is different from that found in Western textbooks.

Corson, D. (1983). Social dialect, the semantic barrier, and access to curricular knowledge. *Language in Society, 12*, 213-222.

Hypothesizes that lower class children are denied access to certain domains of knowledge and may not fully develop cognitively because they do not have access to the Graeco-latin vocabulary commonly used in middle-class families. The article reviews literature related to the topic and examines factors that reinforce the vocabulary barrier for lower class speakers. The author makes several suggestions for dealing with the differential vocabulary acquisition of children of varying class backgrounds.

Delain, M. T., Pearson, P. D., & Anderson, R. C. (1985). Reading comprehension in Black language use: You stand to gain by playing the sounding game. *American Educational Research Journal, 22*(2), 155-173.

Explores the possibility that the rich use of nonliteral verbal forms in Black English may be beneficial to black children for comprehending figurative language in school texts. A proposed causal model of the relationships that exist among general language ability, black language ability, sounding skill, and figurative language comprehension is presented and used as a basis for the study. Path analysis showed that sounding skill and black language ability have an effect on figurative language comprehension for black students. The authors call for more research that focuses on the skills involved in black language mastery and on how teachers can incorporate them in the classroom.

DuBois, B. L., & Valdes, G. (1980). Mexican-American child bilingualism: Double deficit? *The Bilingual Review/La revista bilingue, 7*(1), 1-7.

Examines the issue of dialect usage by Mexican-American children. Presents a linguistic description of the English and Spanish codes used by the children. Discredits many widely-held beliefs about the children's language proficiency in both English and Spanish. The authors conclude that more research investigating the English and Spanish of Mexican-American children is needed so that harmful generalizations may be avoided.

Gee, J. P. (1987, December). *Discourse systems and aspirin bottles: On literacy.* Paper presented at the National Reading Conference, St. Petersburg, FL.

Discusses the referential, contextualization, and ideological systems of the language process to illustrate how they are involved in all reading tasks--even that of reading the back of an aspirin bottle. Uses concrete examples from research with three socially defined groups (black lower to lower-middle high school students, white lower to lower-middle high school students, and white upper-class students) to illustrate how the three groups differ in the way they use referential, contextualization, and ideological systems to answer open-ended questions about a specific text passage that they all read.

Goodman, K. (1982). Urban dialects and reading instruction. In F. Gollasch (Ed.), *Language and literacy: The selected writings of Kenneth S. Goodman.* Volume II, Reading, language, and the classroom teacher. London: Routledge and Kagan Paul.

Discusses the relationship between dialect differences and reading from a linguistic viewpoint. The dialect features that are examined include phonological, vocabulary, and syntactic differences. The author points out that all English speakers speak some form of a dialect.

Goodman, K. S., & Buck, C. (1982). Dialect barriers to reading comprehension: Revisited. Reprinted in F. Gollasch (Ed.), *Language and literacy: The selected writings of Kenneth S. Goodman*. Volume II, Reading, language, and the classroom teacher. London: Routledge & Kagan Paul.

Retracts an earlier hypothesis which the author made regarding the possible adverse relationship between dialect differences and learning to read. Findings from oral miscue research with black dialect speakers in Detroit are reported. The research indicates that the children who used dialect features in their oral readings were not always consistent in its usage. They also tended to use their dialect more frequently in their oral retellings than they did in their oral readings. The presence of dialect-involved miscues, however, did not hinder the children's reading comprehension. The author concludes that any disadvantage suffered by children of low status dialects is imposed on them by their teachers and schools' rejection of their dialect, and not by the divergence between the children's dialect and that of the reading material or learning situation.

Greenbaum, P. E. (1985). Nonverbal differences in communication styles between American Indian and Anglo elementary classrooms. *American Educational Research Journal, 22*(1), 101-115.

Contrasts the nonverbal and verbal responses of students and teachers in a Mississippi Choctaw reservation school and a public school of mostly Anglo students in Lawrence, Kansas. The classroom participation of 25 Choctaw and 27 Anglo students from four fifth- and sixth-grade classrooms were videotaped. All student utterances and teacher questions were coded. The Choctaw students exhibited shorter utterances when speaking individually, spoke individually less often, and interrupted the teacher more frequently. The Indian students also spent more time gazing at peers than the non-Indian students. The author concludes that these findings reflect real cultural differences between Anglo and Indian students which may cause problems in learning when Indian students have Anglo teachers.

Hall, W. S., & Guthrie, L. F. (1980). On the dialect question and reading. In R. J. Spiro, B. C. Bruce, & W. F. Brewer (Eds.), *Theoretical issues in reading comprehension: Perspectives from cognitive psychology, linguistics, artificial intelligence, and education* (pp. 439-445). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Discusses reading interference and the use of nonstandard black dialect from the points of view of sociolinguistics and developmental psychology. Reviews research related to phonological, grammatical, lexical, and content differences as they affect reading comprehension. The authors conclude that much of the research is contradictory and inconclusive due to the non-natural settings of some of the experiments. They recommend that studies from an ethnography of communication perspective, focusing on the cultural and situational differences in language function and use, may help determine if dialect differences are facilitators or interferences.

Hall, W. S., & Guthrie, L. F. (1981). Cultural and situational variation in language function and use--methods and procedures for research. In J. Green & C. Wanat (Eds.), *Ethnography and language in educational settings*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Proposes that an ethnographic research agenda is necessary in order to examine whether there is a mismatch between minority children's use of language and the use of language in school. Suggestions regarding how data should be collected for this type of research are delineated. The authors conclude that experimental, survey, and interview methods alone will not be sufficient for solving the problems of ethnic minorities in U.S. schools and that ethnographic techniques are necessary in order to understand the reality faced by minority children.

Hall, W. S., Nagy, W. E., & Linn, R. (1984). *Spoken words: Effects of situation and social group on oral word usage and frequency*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Reports findings from a study that documents the spoken vocabulary of 39 white and black preschool children from middle-class and working-class families. The language samples were based on the children's speech over a two-day period at home, at school, and in transition between the home and school. Specific vocabulary differences were found between high and low socioeconomic children. The word frequency count developed for each of the groups from this data supported earlier research findings regarding the vocabulary mismatch that exists for low-income and minority children in school materials and academic tests. The authors also note that vocabulary use for the different groups was differentially affected by the environmental context. The actual corpus of words collected in the study is presented. A chapter in the book--co-authored by Bruce, B., Rubin, A., Starr, K., & Liebling, C.--discusses the biases against working-class and black children that are created by the use of readability formulas in the determination of text for children. The major argument in the book is that vocabulary in school texts and tests unfairly represents that used in the homes of middle-class white children. The source of non-mainstream children's problems are not in the children or in their homes but in the schools.

Heath, S. B. (1982). Questioning at home and at school: A comparative study. In G. Spindler (Ed.), *Doing the ethnography of schooling: Educational anthropology in action* (pp. 102-131). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Reports findings from an ethnographic study of language use in a black Southeastern community, called Trackton. Highlights several differences that existed between the language that the white middle class teachers used with their own children as compared to the language that the black parents used with their children. Some of the findings revealed that the black children in Tracton were not viewed by adults as reliable sources of information or as suitable partners for conversation, and that the children were socialized to avoid reporting on the behavior of other persons to individuals outside the community. They also were not used to answering questions if the answer was already known to the questioner. The author demonstrates how questions common to the classroom, and reflective of the white middle class speech interaction at home, caused problems for the black children. When teachers adapted their question style to those of the black children, and discussed the types of questions more commonly used in the classroom with the black children, classroom communication improved. The author recommends that this type of approach is more beneficial than a remedial program.

Horvath, B. M. (1977). Sociolinguistics and reading. In R. Shuy (Ed.), *Linguistic theory: What can it say about reading?* (pp. 95-107). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Reviews five areas that are of interest to both sociolinguists and educators and that are related to the learning of reading. The specific topics discussed are the language deficit theory, variability concept, attitudes regarding standardized testing , and approaches for the teaching of reading to nonstandard dialect speakers. The author concludes that intellectual development is not negatively affected by any particular language or dialect.

Michaels, S. (1981). "Sharing time": Children's narrative styles and differential access to literacy. *Language in Society, 10*, 423-442.

Utilizes a case study approach oriented toward the key situations concept of Fred Erickson and John Gumperz to ethnographically study an urban first grade classroom. Focuses on the interactions between the teacher and students during sharing time. The researcher reveals that different patterns of communication in the black and white speech communities cause the teacher to unintentionally misunderstand her black students and, thus, deprive them of the benefits of important preliterate activities.

Nichols, P. C. (1977). A sociolinguistic perspective on reading and black children. *Language Arts, 54*(2), 150-157.

Briefly reviews the debate regarding Black English Vernacular and reading in Standard English. Reports findings from two studies. In the first, black children from rural South Carolina changed the syntactic patterns of their orally dictated stories to conform to Standard English when they read the stories aloud. The author concludes that the children knew more Standard English than it appeared and that they clearly associated reading with Standard English. In the second study, a survey of 491 fifth-grade children was conducted to identify non- or preprimer readers. Children were identified on the basis of teacher or principal observations. The majority of the non- or preprimer readers were black males. Through naturalistic observations of the families and communities involved, the researcher determined that black adult males with whom the boys lived placed a low value on reading. The census for the area also indicated that none of the five more popular occupations for black males required literacy skills. The author concludes that peer status and community esteem were ascribed to black adult males on the basis of spoken and not written language. She proposes that this results in a conflict with the goals of schooling in the United States.

Padak, N. D. (1981). The language and educational needs of children who speak Black English. *Reading Teacher, 35*(2), 144-151.

Reviews literature regarding the use of Black English Vernacular (BEV) dialect and offers suggestions to classroom teachers who work with children who speak BEV. The author points out that early research viewed BEV as a deficient and deviant form of the English language. Cognitive and academic problems were an expected result of its use. Researchers

later began to question these views and discovered that BEV is as rich a language as Standard English. More recent research focuses on whether or not BEV speakers are truly bidialectal. The author concludes by emphasizing that: (a) no dialect of English is better or worse than any other, (b) teachers need to understand BEV if they are to be effective with BEV speakers, (c) the importance of setting or environment needs to be kept in mind when different varieties of speech are used, and (d) teachers should accept the use of BEV in the classroom while at the same time teaching children language forms necessary for written language.

Philips, S. U. (1983). *The invisible culture: Communication in classroom and community on the Warm Springs Indian Reservation*. New York: Longman.

Explores the culturally distinctive language use of Warm Springs Indians. The primary mode of data collection was that of participant observation. A four-way comparison between Anglo first- and sixth-grade classrooms and Indian classrooms was supplemented with additional research in the Indian community. The findings revealed greater interpersonal communication among the Warm Springs Indians than among Anglos. Indian children on the Warm Springs Reservation differed from Anglo children in the manner in which they structured their attention to a particular speaker, such as the teacher, and in the norms they held for the regulation of talk. These differences resulted in miscommunication between the Anglo teacher and Indian students. Implications of the study suggest that more Indian teachers should be trained, curriculum content should reflect some of the Indians' history and concerns, and teaching methods that are based on Indian modes of communication and social structure should be incorporated into the Indian schools. The author also recommends that governmental agencies need to fund curriculum development, universities need to train Indian teachers, and local school administrators need to support teachers with funds and time for development.

Toohey, K. (1986). Minority educational failure: Is dialect a factor? *Curriculum Inquiry, 16*(2), 127-145.

Argues that classroom teachers have not benefited from the sociolinguistic research concerned with standard and non- standard dialects of the last 20 years. After briefly discussing the definitions of standard languages and dialects, the author suggests that it is not the dialect differences themselves that cause many of the children's reading problems, but rather the how and why of language use. The author proposes that written Standard English be taught to dialect speakers. Because Standard English is a different dialect for all English speakers, the author considers that using it will not alienate the dialect user from the speech community to which he/she belongs.

Troutman, D. E., & Falk, J. S. (1982). Speaking Black English and reading--Is there a problem of interference. *Journal of Negro Education, 51*(27), 123-133.

Reviews research which has investigated whether Black English speakers experience dialect interference when they read in Standard English. Topics reviewed include syntactic, phonological and orthographic interference as well as the proposed benefits of Black English reading texts. The authors point out that it is a fallacy to assume that Black English speakers automatically will be able to read Black English texts without direct instruction or exposure to other speakers of Black English reading such texts. They conclude that there is no clear-cut evidence that Black English dialect interferes with Standard-English reading.

7.0 Sociocultural Perspectives

The articles in this section view literacy acquisition in particular, and academic achievement in general, from a sociocultural perspective. The majority of the studies examine the literacy acquisition of cultural and/linguistic minorities from the larger societal context. A few of the articles focus on specific sociocultural differences.

Brandt, E. A. (1982). Native American attitudes toward literacy and recording in the Southwest. *The Journal of the Linguistic Association of the Southwest* (pp. 185-195).

Examines literacy, and especially written materials, from the Native American viewpoint. Notes that from this perspective, speech and breath are seen as alive and moist, while the written record is seen as dead and dry. The author hypothesizes that Native Americans have a historical and contemporary aversion to writing and other means of permanent data storage. She uses her experience of 13 years with southwestern tribes as data. She concludes that writing, literacy, and other forms of data storage should be critiqued and that their societal implications need to be understood.

Cummins, J. (1986). Empowering minority students: A framework for intervention. *Harvard Educational Review*, *56*(1), 18-36.

Develops a theoretical framework for "examining the types of personal and institutional redefinitions that are required to reverse the pattern of minority student failure." The framework includes classroom interactions between students and teachers, relationships between schools and minority communities, and intergroup power relations within the society as a whole. Cummins recommends that (a) educators need to actively recognize and support students' linguistic talents, (b) communities need to be involved in the development of students' academic and cultural resources, and (c) pedagogical approaches need to be utilized that do not foster instructional dependence. Examples of successful reading programs used with minority students are presented.

Erickson, F. (1984). School literacy, reasoning, and civility: An anthropologist's perspective. *Review of Educational Research*, *54*(4), 525-546.

Proposes that the acquisition of school literacy needs to be viewed as a social transaction, or a collective enterprise. Describes the variation in literacy that exists and reviews the different explanations that have been proposed for the school failure of minority students. Considers that literacies are task- and culture-specific and not necessarily representative of higher order thinking. Reports findings from sociolinguistic research to illustrate the influences of social organization on the acquisition of school literacy in terms of teacher-student interaction, task selection and definition, culturally patterned ways of acting and speaking. Reviews reproduction and resistance theory and suggests that the field needs theory and empirical work to account for and describe "the macro- and micropolitical economy of the social and cultural organization of the teaching and learning of school literacy and reasoning practices." Presents Barnhardt's (1982) research on an Alaskan Athabaskan native village school and Au and Mason's (1981) research with Hawaiian children as examples of modest success. Warns that the focus on school and teacher effectiveness or on curricular reform neglects the fundamental changes in social relations between teacher and students that are needed.

Fishman, J. A. (1980). Ethnocultural dimensions in the acquisition and retention of biliteracy. *Journal of Basic Writing, 3*(1), 48-61.

Surveys different types of biliteracy present in New York City. French, Hebrew, Greek, Armenian and Chinese are the five non-English language communities that are examined. The author stresses the fact that biliteracy is attained with apparent ease when certain societal conditions are met. These conditions include different functional allocations for the two types of literacy and the belief in the community that biliteracy should be a part of their children's education. Other problems often associated with the attainment of biliteracy are minimal when the societal conditions are met. The author concludes that changes need to be made at the societal level in order for advances in literacy to occur.

Fraatz, J. M. (1987). *The politics of reading.* New York: Teachers College Press.

Reviews the education of low-achieving children from a political science viewpoint. Considers that the educational system perpetuates inequality of education for economically and culturally disadvantaged students. The author terms this perpetuation the "mobilization of bias." The discussion specifically centers on reading and looks at the roles that teachers, reading specialists, principals, parents, and district officials play in this mobilization. The author suggests that these individuals are so involved in perpetuating the current educational system that they are unable or unwilling to make changes that would allow all children to learn to read successfully. She concludes that teachers have power over what goes on in their classrooms, but that they do not realize the extent of that power. The author recommends that teachers be given more opportunities to interact professionally with one another and that the responsibility and capacity for planning should be extended to educators other than classroom teachers.

Heath, S. B. (1980, Winter). The functions and uses of literacy. *Journal of Communication, 30,* 123-133.

Examines how literacy is perceived and used by members of different cultures. Reviews some commonly held beliefs about literacy and reports on data the author collected over a 5-year period in an all-black working class community. Her results indicate that the functions of literacy for the people she studied varied from that of the larger society. The author concludes that literacy may be acquired in different ways other than in school and that it has varied uses.

Heath, S. B. (1986). Taking a cross-cultural look at narratives. *Topics in Language Disorders*, 7(1), 84-94.

Describes how narratives and the roles they play in the socialization of children vary across different sociocultural groups. A review of anthropological research reveals four universal types of narratives. Summarizes findings from the author's research with a white working class community (Roadville), a black working class community (Trackton), and black and white middle class people (the townspeople) to illustrate how the genres used in the schools fit the middle class experience but do not fit the experience of the other two groups. The author warns that schools should not assume that the school-type genres are naturally acquired by any child, and that teachers should explicate the genres they are teaching by providing the norms for them. She also recommends that schools find ways to use the different types of genres in classroom activities.

Labov, W. (1982). Competing value systems in the inner-city schools. In P. Gilmore & A. A. Glatthorn (Eds.), *Children in and out of school: Ethnography and education* (pp. 148- 171). Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Argues that inner-city youth of normal ability perform poorly in school because they reject the school culture in favor of vernacular culture and reject a certain number of school values in favor of vernacular values. The argument develops in an attempt to explain the declining reading test score performance of black children from grade 1-12 in the Philadelphia school district. It is based on earlier research by the author, Wolfram's study of the English of Puerto Ricans of East Harlem (1974), and current data on reading test performances in the Philadelphia school. The author contends that children do not turn to the peer group because they fail to be rewarded in school (as suggested by verbal deprivation theory), but instead that peer group identification is a natural phenomenon. He also points out that black vernacular culture is rich verbally, and for this reason, one cannot say that there is a strong relationship between verbal skills and schooling. He argues that the primary cause of reading failure is the conflict of values and social systems and not the children's intelligence, ability, or family background. Finally, he suggests that the school values rejected are trivial and not related to the basics of the learning process. For this reason, he thinks that it would be possible to remedy the situation by adapting the nature of the social forms and development of cognitive skills in the vernacular setting to the school situation.

McDermott, R. P. (1977). The cultural context of learning to read. In S.F. Wanat (Ed.), *Issues in evaluating reading* (pp. 10-18). Papers in applied linguistics, linguistics and reading series: 1. Arlington, VA: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Contends that success in reading and success in social interaction with peers in the classroom are mutually exclusive for certain minority groups. In support of this hypothesis, the author cites literature related to reading failure. He considers that minority children frequently learn how not to read due to their reaction to cultural stratification. Specific examples are given regarding black children. The author concludes that whether children pay attention to reading instruction will depend on the children's experience with the reading materials in terms of who gives them to the children, when, and why, and how the children feel about themselves after using the materials. The author does not consider it to be socially functional for a black leader within a peer group to become literate in school.

Ogbu, J. (1983). Literacy and schooling in subordinate cultures: The case of Black Americans. In D. P. Resnick (Ed.), *Literacy in historical perspective* (pp. 129-153). Washington, DC: Library of Congress.

Takes issue with the view that the disproportionate failure of black children in school is due to their reliance on an oral culture which is incompatible with the literate culture of the school. Ogbu reviews the different theories that have been proposed to account for the problems of young black readers--the deficit theory, the difference perspective, and the communication mismatch hypothesis. Ogbu rejects these explanations of black school failure. He offers a cultural ecological explanation for black school failure which views institutionalized and socially transmitted patterns of behavior as interdependent with certain aspects of the environment. He proposes that economic factors should be considered a root cause instead of an outcome of the literacy problem. From his perspective, black schooling should not be qualitatively different from white schooling, however, the school system does need to win the trust of the black community.

Ogbu, J. (1986). The consequences of the American caste system. In V. Neisser (Ed.), *The school achievement of minority children: New perspectives* (pp. 19-56). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Criticizes explanations given for differing IQ scores among racial groups. Presents his framework which accounts for differences in status among minority groups in the United States. Considers castelike minorities to be those groups who are involuntarily incorporated into society as opposed to groups which have voluntarily come to this country. Does not believe IQ scores are true reflections of the ability of blacks. Attributes differences in IQ scores to racial subordination and the caste system.

Ogbu, J. (in press). Diversity and equity in public education: Community forces and minority school adjustment and performances. In R. Haskins & D. McRae (Eds.), *Education & public policy in the 1980's*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Examines the educational situation of black Americans and other groups he terms "caste-like" and compares these groups to other minority groups usually thought of as more successful. Reviews and critiques three different theories that have been proposed to explain the educational problems of caste-like groups. Demonstrates how the experiences of immigrant and nonimmigrant minorities have been shaped by different circumstances in the United States. The author concludes by calling for a reduction in the barriers faced by nonimmigrant or caste-like minorities. He also considers that children from caste-like minorities face a conflict in making it academically or in losing their cultural identity.

Ogbu, J. U., & Matute-Bianchi, M. E. (1986). Understanding sociocultural factors: Knowledge, identity, and school adjustment. In *Beyond language: Social and cultural factors in schooling language minority students* (pp. 73-142). Compiled by California State Department of Education, Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination, and Assessment Center.

Sets up a framework to account for the inconsistent achievement of different minority groups in the United States. The model seeks to explain why some cultural- linguistic minorities have been academically successful while others have not. Different types of minority status (autonomous, immigrant, and caste-like) are presented as one explanation of why this phenomenon occurs. Two case studies are presented as corroborating evidence focusing on Chinese-Americans and Mexican-Americans. The authors conclude by recommending cooperative learning as one solution and also by reminding educators that the problem of minorities needs to be reconceptualized before change can begin. Ultimately, they believe that the teacher can help reduce the affective dissonance of minority students.

Shade, B. J. (1982). Afro-American cognitive style: A variable in school success. *Review of Educational Research*, *52*(2), 219- 244.

Synthesizes and reviews research dealing with possible differences in the way blacks utilize information-processing strategies as compared to whites. Several areas are discussed and include, among others, cultural foundations of Afro-American thought; influences of socialization on cognition; Afro-American perceptual, conceptual and personality styles; cognitive style and the schooling process; and cultural style and learning. The author concludes that unless one is willing to attribute lower rates of educational success for minorities to inferiority that different modes of learning for blacks should be explored.

Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (1979). *Language in the process of cultural assimilation and structural incorporation of linguistic minorities*. Arlington, VA: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

Discusses the variable performance of Finnish children in Swedish schools from the viewpoint of conflict theory. The author hypothesizes that when subordinate children younger than ten years old are deprived of native language instruction, they become subtractive bilinguals or semiliterates suffering from double semilingualism due to interference with their cognitive development. However, when dominant children (majority) are given instruction in a non-native language prior to being ten years old, they become bilingual. In support of this thesis, the author reports findings which indicate a positive relationship between the length of time Finnish children were educated in Finnish with their later performance in Swedish.

So, A. Y., & Chan, K. S. (1984). What matters? The relative impact of language background and socioeconomic status on reading achievement. *NABE Journal*, *8*(3), 27-41.

Seeks to determine the cause of the reading achievement gap between language minority students (Hispanic) and non-language minority students. Language background, socioeconomic status, and ethnicity in the High School and Beyond data set were analyzed. Language background and socioeconomic status/ethnicity were found to be equally accountable for the gap.

Troike, R. C. (1984). SCALP: Social and cultural aspects of language proficiency. In C. Rivera (Ed.), *Language proficiency and academic achievement* (pp. 44-54). Avon, England: Multi-lingual Matters, LTD.

Critiques Cummins' (1979) "linguistic interdependence hypothesis", which purportedly explains the low academic performance of language minority children. Troike specifically questions the validity of the "cognitive academic language proficiency" (CALP) construct. Although Cummins considers CALP to differ from other aspects of language proficiency, Troike points out that this construct is similar to Oller's (1980) "general language proficiency factor" and Spearman's (1927) "g" factor of intelligence. He also suggests that "basic interpersonal communication skills" (BICS) are not uniformly acquired by all individuals. According to Troike, socioeconomic status and sociocultural factors are major influences that affect to what extent students acquire the crucial background knowledge necessary for reading and academic achievement. He asserts that school achievement, test scores of intelligence, and CALP are primarily indicators of acculturation.

8.0 Assessment and Referral

The studies in this section present findings regarding the testing, diagnosis, and placement of children.

Algozzine, B., & Ysseldyke, J. (1983). Learning disabilities as a subset of school failure: The oversophistication of a concept. *Exceptional Children*, *50*(3), 242-246.

Reviews the development of the learning disabilities category. Reports findings from an analysis of the psychometric test performance of learning disabled and low- achieving students. The authors report that their findings do not warrant the distinction that is currently made between learning-disabled and low-achieving children. They specifically question the reliance on discrepancies between IQ and achievement test scores as the identifying criterion. They contend that more effort needs to be spent on helping low-achieving students in general than on defining and researching the learning disabilities category.

Applebee, A. N., Langer, J. A., & Mullis, I. V. S. (1987). *The nation's report card: Learning to be literate in America: Reading*. Princeton: Educational Testing Service.

Presents the findings of recent assessments of the National Assessment of Educational Progress regarding the reading and writing achievement of school-age children and young adults, ages 21 through 25. Addresses the following questions: Are students learning to read and write better as they move through school? How well do the nation's young people read? How well do the nation's students write? Who is at risk? To what extent are children and young adults from at-risk minority groups within American society learning to be literate? To what extent have gaps in performance between groups been reduced during the past decade? To what extent do children adopt the literacy practices of their homes? Why have instructional reforms had little effect? Recommendations are made regarding who should be targeted for help and the level of literacy that should be promoted. The responsibilities of policy-makers, administrators, and teachers are delineated.

Brown, A. L., & Campione, J. C. (1986). Psychological theory and the study of learning disabilities. *American Psychologist*, *14*(10), 1059-1068.

Proposes that diagnosis and instruction of learning disabilities should focus on the specific components of learning tasks that students are having difficulty acquiring rather than seeking to diagnose cognitive deficits. A cognitive theory of assessment and instruction and the concepts of dynamic assessment and guided learning are introduced. Arithmetic and reading instruction are offered as examples of how these new ideas may be applied. The authors conclude that more research is needed to build upon and extend the findings obtained from work with reciprocal teaching, specifically in the area of conceptual understanding of procedures. Detailed task analyses of the major academic domains also are called for so that teachers will know what it is that needs to be taught.

Cabello, B. (1984). Cultural interface in reading comprehension: An alternative explanation. *Bilingual Review*, *2*(1), 12-20.

Considers the cultural test bias inherent in the translation of standardized test items from English to Spanish. Focuses on the existence of cultural bias (a) at the lexico-syntactic level, (b) in terms of the content and concepts presented, and (c) in terms of the social and cognitive functions of the language utilized. Views reading comprehension from the framework of schema theory. Provides examples of cultural bias or interference in reading from the author's research, which focused on the reading test performance of Spanish-speaking children on either the CTBS or its Spanish translation. The translation of tests as a valid assessment of language minority groups is called into question.

Coles, G. (1987). *The learning mystique: A critical look at "learning disabilities"*. New York: Pantheon Books.

Undertakes a global critique of the learning disabilities field by proposing that the existence of a special debilitating neurological condition that impairs some children's ability to learn is far from a proven fact and relies on untenable evidence. Cole's book first examines the history of the learning disabilities field and systematically and acerbically discredits the methodology employed to account for learning problems in what at first were middle-class white children. Success, as determined by those children who are able to return to regular classrooms, is explained as stemming from excellent teaching by teachers who do not base their instruction on neurological diagnoses. An alternative theory is proposed that views learning disabilities and associated neurological problems as developing from "the relationships and interactions between the individual and social conditions."

Cooper, D. H., & Farran, D. C. (1988). Behavioral risk factors in kindergarten. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, *3*(1), 1-19.

Defines the behavioral risk factors which kindergarten teachers use to classify their students. Thirty kindergarten teachers provided behavioral ratings and global adjustment assessments twice a year for the kindergartners in their classes, totalling 650 students. The researchers used the concept of relative risk as found in epidemiology and estimated combinations of behavioral risk factors derived from the teachers' ratings through factor analyses. The results indicated that the risk for casivity (being classified as a case of maladjustment) was more strongly related to work-related skills than it was to interpersonal skills. In addition, a pattern of interaction existed between the two types of behavioral factors in that the risk for casivity associated with low interpersonal skills disappeared when work-related skills were high. The researchers suggest that interpersonal behavior such as disobedience and poor interaction with peers is not as important to teachers as are behaviors associated with being off-task or inattentive to routine and instructions.

Cooper, D. H., & Speece, D. L. (1987, April). *Characteristics of primary grade children at risk for school failure*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Washington, DC.

Introduces the conceptual framework that the authors are using in their 3-year investigation of children at risk for referral to special education. Also, presents preliminary findings based on the first year results. The authors use cluster analysis to identify homogeneous subtypes of children based on child characteristics and learning environment variables. Through analysis of the probability of adverse outcome (relative risk) associated with both child characteristics and learning environment clusters, they are able to reveal the child characteristics that are likely to result in referral and the interventions that are likely to reduce the risk of referral. The advantages of their approach as compared to multiple regression analysis are presented. They consider their approach to be an improvement because it provides estimates of strength of association between the risk factor and outcome in terms of probability.

Cummins, J. (1980). Psychological assessment of immigrant children: Logic or intuition. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, *1*(1), 97-111.

Questions the validity of current psychological assessments of immigrant children. Data is presented from a study of 1200 children in Canada which shows that it takes these children

from 5 to 7 years to approach grade norms in English. The author proposes that the children may develop basic interpersonal communication skills in their second language which give the impression of linguistic competence but which mask the cognitive/academic language proficiency needed for second language reading. It is for this reason that Cummins feels that an accurate identification of reading disabilities is impossible. First language tests are proposed as one means of accurately determining a child's potential. Cummins also feels that first language instruction is necessary to avoid low levels of literacy in both languages.

Garcia, G. E. (1988, April). *Factors influencing the English reading test performance of Spanish-English bilingual children*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, LA.

Identifies factors that influenced the English reading test performance of 51 Spanish-speaking Hispanic children as compared to that of 53 Anglo children enrolled in the same English-medium classrooms at the fifth- and sixth-grade levels. The students took a prior knowledge and vocabulary test two weeks prior to taking a reading comprehension test composed of five standardized test passages and a passage on pinatas. A subsample of 18 children participated in retrospective, open-ended interviews regarding how they determined their vocabulary and reading test answers. A series of MANOVAs and discriminant analyses indicated that, with the exception of the pinata passage, the Hispanic children knew significantly less about the topics on the reading test than did the Anglo children. They also performed significantly poorer on scriptally implicit questions, which required the students to blend information in the text with their own background knowledge. Multiple regression analyses suggested that the amount of reading test variance accounted for by the Hispanic children's performance on a standardized reading test and on the prior knowledge and vocabulary tests was considerably less than the amount of Anglo reading test variance accounted for. The qualitative results indicated that the Hispanic children's reading test performance was complicated by the presence of unknown words in the questions and in the answer choices. When the questions were translated into Spanish, then some of the Hispanic children answered the questions correctly, indicating that they had comprehended the passages. The author concludes that there were other unidentified variables that influenced the Hispanic children's reading test performance to a greater degree than the Anglo children's. She also suggests that the Hispanic children were at a particular disadvantage due to the presence of unfamiliar topics, scriptally implicit questions based on these topics, and unknown vocabulary in the questions and answer choices. The Hispanic children's tendency to utilize a literal interpretation of the text to determine their test answers also meant that oral comprehension questions asked in Spanish or English were better measures of their English reading comprehension than was the reading test itself.

Hoffer, K. R. (1983). Assessment and instruction of reading skills: Results with Mexican-American students. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, *6*(4), 458-467.

Discusses several issues related to the testing and teaching of Mexican-American students. The article begins with a review of pertinent literature in the area of non-biased assessment. Problems that occur when inappropriate tests are used are noted and informal reading inventories and cloze tests are suggested as alternatives. A table that contains 15 different tests for use with Hispanic students is included. The author suggests that full literacy in the first language is necessary before second language academic work can begin. The language experience approach and the total physical response method for teaching English are suggested for use with Mexican-American students.

Horn, T. D. (1981). The role of bilingualism in reading difficulties. *Journal of Research and Development in Education, 14*, 58-66.

Discusses the role of bilingualism (Spanish/English) in reading difficulties. Three topics are reviewed: categories and variations in bilingualism, misinterpretation/misuses of standardized reading test results, and diagnostic-prescriptive issues. To discuss categories and variations, four case studies are presented. Comparison between Informal Reading Inventory results and standardized test results (reading and readiness) are presented to demonstrate the lack of validity of standardized tests for bilingual children. Suggests a number of factors that should be taken into account in diagnostic/prescriptive situations, including cognitive styles, teacher-learner strategies, the child's attitude toward reading, and the child's level of competence in English. (IRA)

Langdon, H. W. (1983). Assessment and intervention strategies for the bilingual language-disordered student. *Exceptional Children, 50*(1), 37-46.

Reports findings from research with two groups ($n=25$) of 6-8 year-old children who were native speakers of Puerto Rican Spanish. The children were asked to complete six tasks in both Spanish and English (articulation in single words and connected speech, auditory discrimination, sentence comprehension, sentence repetition, and sentence expression). Half of the children were considered to be language disordered because they had difficulty comprehending and expressing English when they were compared to other children of similar backgrounds. *T*-test results indicated that the differentiation by the two groups was apparent in the number of errors rather than the type of errors, with language disordered children committing more errors in the two languages.

Lindquist, G. T. (1982). Preschool screening as a means of predicting later reading achievement. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 15*(6), 331-332.

Examines the usefulness of the Denver Developmental Screening Test by correlating these test results with students' later scores on the Gates-MacGinitie test. The 351 subjects were randomly selected from the Weber School District in Utah. Although there was a significant correlation for all three grade levels, the relationship was not strong enough to be of any practical use. The author concludes that educational decisions based on the results of this screening test may be detrimental to the children identified. A call for more accurate measures is made.

Messick, S. (1984). Assessment in context: Appraising student performance in relation to instructional quality. *Educational Researcher, 13*(3), 3-8.

Summarizes the major findings of the National Research Council on Selection and Placement of Students in Programs for the Mentally Retarded. Major issues discussed are the validity of referral and assessment procedures and the actual quality of instruction received in special education classrooms. The author calls for a two-phase comprehensive assessment of students which would assess the students' learning environment and their classroom functioning.

Paulson, D., & Ball, D. (1984). Back to basics: Minimum competency testing and its impact on minorities. *Urban Education, 19*(1), 5-15.

Sets forth the pros and cons of minimum competency testing, referring to the situation in the Florida state high schools. Reports that when the tests were given a trial run in October of 1977, 36% of the 115,901 students who took the test failed. Seventy-eight percent of the students who failed were black. Those students who failed received certificates of completion instead of high school diplomas. The authors conclude that states need to answer the question of how they will ensure that all students have an equal opportunity of passing the tests. Otherwise they fear that minimum competency testing will be viewed as just one more means by which social discrimination is perpetuated.

Reschly, D. J. (1984). Beyond IQ test bias: The National Academy Panel's analysis of minority EMR over-representation. *Educational Researcher, 13*(3), 15-18.

Critiques the National Academy of Sciences' report on special education placement. The issue of minority over-representation is brushed aside by noting that increased expenditures are involved when serving students in special education programs. The author concurs with the view held by the Panel that testing for special placement is fair. He also points out that mainstreaming may be suitable for younger children in the primary grades but becomes increasingly problematic as students get older. The author calls for changes in the system of classification used to identify students in special education. He also proposes that several groups receiving special services should be grouped together, that is, learning disabled, educably mentally retarded, and compensatory students.

Snow, R. E. (1984). Placing children in special education: Some comments. *Educational Researcher, 13*(3), 12-14.

Looks at the report of the National Academy of Sciences Panel on Selection and Placement of Students for the Mentally Retarded in terms of its research proposals. Aptitude assessment, alternative treatment design, and outcome assessment are areas targeted for further research in the report. The author argues for continued usage of IQ measures along with diagnostic assessment of intellectual skills. He cautions against the use of "blanket panaceas", such as direct instruction, and reminds those in the field that the particular strengths of students as well as their weaknesses need to be assessed. He urges that different programs for emotionally and mentally retarded be designed and evaluated within the classic aptitude-treatment interaction framework.

Vinsonhaler, J. S., Weinshank, A. B., Wagner, C. C., & Polin, R. M. (1983). Diagnosing children with educational problems: Characteristics of reading and learning disabilities specialists, and classroom teachers. *Reading Research Quarterly, 18*(2), 134-164.

Tests the diagnostic and remedial performance of 66 reading and learning disabilities specialists and classroom teachers for commonality and individual agreement on simulated cases of either reading or learning disability. The principal data analyzed were the subjects' written diagnoses and the types of information they collected to inform their diagnoses. Additional analyses also examined the subjects' written remediation and how well they fit the diagnoses. Across all of the analyses, commonality and individual agreement were very low. Agreement between individual diagnosis and proposed remediation also was low. Based on their findings, the researchers conclude that diagnosis as it presently is conducted is not warranted. They recommend that additional research investigate the reasons for low diagnostic agreement so that the training and decision making of reading specialists may be improved.

Ysseldyke, J. E., Thurlow, M. L., & O'Sullivan, P. J. (1987). The impact of screening and referral practices in early childhood special education: Policy considerations and research directions. *The Journal of Special Education, 21*(2), 85-96.

Utilizes an ecological case study approach to identify possible influences that affect the screening outcomes of early childhood special education screening programs. Four programs were compared in terms of the percentage of eligible children who were screened

and the percentage referred for special education assessment. The data collection was multidimensional and consisted of interviews with screening personnel and administrators, observations of the screening process, review of records, and parental surveys. The findings indicated that screening outcomes were not influenced in a consistent manner as a result of screening and referral practices. The authors suggest alternative approaches for the study of screening and its effects on preschoolers.

9.0 Home Influences

The articles in this section focus on the role of the family in children's acquisition of literacy skills.

Edwards, P. A. (1989). Supporting mothers attempting to provide scaffolding for bookreading. In J. B. Allen & J. Mason (Eds.), *Risk makers, risk takers, risk breakers: Reducing the risks for young learners*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann Educational Books.

Summarizes the story-reading interactions that occurred between five lower socioeconomic status black mothers and their children. Discusses why only 1 of the 5 parents was able to develop successful interaction behaviors. Two of the major difficulties encountered were the parents' lack of literacy skills and their unfamiliarity with the specific behaviors involved in storytelling. The author concludes that it is not enough to simply inform parents of the need to read to their children, but that many lower socioeconomic parents need to be taught how to participate in parent-child bookreading.

Goldenberg, C. N. (1987). Low-income Hispanic parents' contributions to their first-grade children's word recognition skills. *Anthropology and Education Quarterly*, *18*(2), 149-179.

Reports findings from an ethnographic case study of nine first-grade children to show how the aid of able and willing parents was not enlisted by the school system. Reveals that parental involvement had a decidedly positive impact on children's progress. Parents of children who failed in first-grade reading were at times discouraged from helping their children or led to believe that everything was fine at school. The author concludes that our educational institutions may be missing valuable opportunities by focusing on obstacles to children's success. He suggests that parents be encouraged in concrete, tangible ways to help their children succeed in school.

Griswold, P. A. (1985). Family outing activities and achievement among fourth graders in compensatory education funded schools. *Journal of Education Research*, *79*(5), 261-266.

Investigates the relationship between operationally defined family outings and the performance of black, white, and Hispanic fourth-grade children on mathematics and reading achievement measures. The children ($N = 1715$) were from urban Los Angeles and assumed to be of low socioeconomic status given the nature of the schools they attended. The participation of the students in the family outings was based on self-reported paper and pencil measures. The achievement measures were from the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills. The outings included going to the beach, going to a picnic, visiting the public library, visiting a museum, going to Disneyland, going to Marineland. The findings indicated that participation in the different family outings varied across the racial groups and might be related to socioeconomic and language background variables. However, achievement scores for those students who participated in family outings were greater than for nonparticipants regardless of racial identity. Visiting the public library was the most significant predictor of academic achievement for all of the groups.

Harris, M. M., & Smith, N. J. (1987). Literacy assessment of Chapter I and non-Chapter I homes. *Reading Improvement*, *24*(2), 137-142.

Evaluates the reliability of a survey designed to identify the literacy-related behavior of Chapter I and non-Chapter I families. Parents of 1,091 kindergarten and first-grade children from 14 elementary schools participated in the study. The survey's reliability was 0.75 as measured by Cronbach's alpha. Significant differences were found in the Chapter I and non-Chapter I parents' responses regarding possession of reading materials, physical closeness while reading aloud, provision of writing materials, adults modeling by both sexes, variety of experiences, book gift- giving, daily reading aloud, and library use, with the Chapter I parents reporting fewer incidences. Significant differences related to opportunities for self-expression, parent modeling of reading, and parent valuing of reading or watching television also were indicated with fewer responses by the Chapter I parents. The researchers suggest that a side benefit of the survey was that it helped to educate parents regarding what they should be doing with their children.

Heath, S. B. (1981). What no bedtime story means: Narrative skills at home and school. *Language in Society, 11*, 49-76.

Studies patterns of language use related to books in three literate communities in the Southeastern United States, focusing on bedtime story reading procedures. The three communities differed from each other in patterns of language use and language socialization of their children. Trackton (a black mill community of recent rural origin) and Roadville (white mill town of Appalachian origin) are as different from each other as either is from Maintown (mainstream, middle-class, school-oriented culture). The differences in preschoolers' language use is reflected in their adjustment to school. The number of subjects and methods of data collection are not detailed in the report. (IRA)

Hoover, M. R. (1978). Community attitudes toward Black English. *Language in Society, 7*, 65-87.

Reports findings based on interviews with 32 parents of Title I Black children at the first- and sixth-grade levels and with 32 parents of non-Title I black children at the same levels. The parents were interviewed regarding their reactions to tapes of Standard English speakers, Black English vernacular speakers, and standard Black English speakers (standard syntax with a few Black syntactic elements, lexical items, and phonological variation). Independent variables included positive black ethnicity, attitudes regarding Black English vernacular, black consciousness, cultural and political behavior. The results indicated that Black English vernacular was considered appropriate for listening and speaking and in the home, community, and informal settings. Whereas, Standard English was appropriate for reading and writing and in the school and formal settings. Standard Black English was accepted by 85% of the subjects in all of the settings and for reading, writing, listening, and speaking. In terms of reading, Black English vernacular speakers did not want vernacular reading, while Black Standard English speakers did not oppose it. Ninety percent of the subjects said that teachers should know about Black English vernacular, but that for them to use it would be patronizing. The researcher concludes that attitudes toward dialects and dialect speakers and not linguistic differences are the source of school problems.

Norman-Jackson, J. (1982). Family interactions, language development, and primary reading achievement of black children in families of low income. *Child Development, 53*(2), 349-358.

Analyzes the relationship among family interactions, language development, and reading achievement for low-income black children at the preschool and second-grade levels. The children were observed in their homes, and language samples and descriptions of family interactions were recorded. The language of preschool siblings of successful second-grade readers was significantly more mature than that of the preschool siblings of unsuccessful second-grade readers (as measured by mean length of utterance). Five years later, the reading achievement of the younger siblings was assessed. The findings indicated that the successful readers had participated in more verbal interaction with their families and produced more mature language. Groups did not differ in IQ, verbal interactions with parents, or parent-encouraged child-initiated verbal interactions. As pre-schoolers, unsuccessful readers received significantly more parental discouragement of child-initiated interactions than did successful readers.

Ortiz, V. (1986). Reading activities and reading proficiency among Hispanic, black and white students. *American Journal of Education*, *95*(1), 58-76.

Analyzes the National Assessment of Educational Progress Report's 1984 survey of reading proficiency among in-school 4th-, 8th- and 11th-graders with respect to factors associated with racial/ethnic differences in achievement. The relationships between socioeconomic status, the lower achievement of black and Hispanic children, the effect of parent's education, reading activities, and the children's' reading proficiency are examined. Significant relationships were found for the children's low academic achievement with parental education and the family's reading activities. The author recommends that reading activities be increased in both the school and home.

Shannon, D., Griffin, M., & Spicola, R. (1986). Three minority groups: How parents support their children's literacy efforts in school. *Reading Education in Texas*, *2*, 17-21.

Investigates the type of literacy activities that minority children and their families engage in at home, and questions if these activities differ between black, Mexican-American, and urban American-Indian families. The homes of 12 children, ages 6 and 7, were selected for interviews. Two high and two low language arts achievers were selected from each minority group. A modified Educational Home Environment Interview instrument was used. It was found that the high achieving children were read to or told stories regularly as preschool children. Their parents held high expectations for them concerning school work and provided reading materials in the home. Urban American-Indian families included their children in cultural activities such as Pow Wows, which differed from the other groups who engaged in less conspicuous cultural activities. The authors conclude that minority families could use additional material and emotional support for their children. They also call for more research in this area.

Shields, P. H., Gordon, J. G., & Dupree, D. (1983). Influence of parent practices upon the reading achievement of good and poor readers. *Journal of Negro Education*, *52*(4), 436-445.

Investigates how the beliefs, knowledge, and practices of low-income parents with respect to reading relate to their children's status as good or poor readers as measured by the children's performances on reading, phonics, and spelling tests. Thirty-two low-income parents and 35 low-income children were orally interviewed by black interviewers. The parents also completed a written questionnaire. The findings revealed significant correlational relationships between parental practices and good readers, with parents of good readers purchasing significantly more books for their children, praising them more, sacrificing time for them, and fostering responsibility. There were no significant differences in parental beliefs regarding the importance of education, the significance of discussion, or the need for educational resources in the home. Multiple regression analysis found that extra books, having responsibilities, and receiving praise positively contributed to the children's achievement, while owning encyclopedias negatively contributed. According to the children, parental school visits, receiving rewards for good grades, and receiving books made the most significant contributions.

Teale, W. H. (1986). Home background and young children's literacy development. In W. H. Teale & E. Sulzby (Eds.), *Emergent literacy: Writing and reading* (pp. 173-206). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Uses naturalistic inquiry to examine the influences of home background on young children's emergent literacy development. The physical and social environments of twenty-four preschool children from low-income black, Anglo, and Mexican-American families were the focus of the study. All of the children were involved with reading and writing in some manner during the course of a normal day, but differing amounts of parental literacy interaction with the children were noted. The variation that was observed across families was not accounted for by ethnicity, sex, family structure or educational level. The qualitative analysis centered on participant-structures and domains of literacy activities in the home. Adult-child and sibling interactions, the child's independent literacy explorations, and others use of written language were recorded in terms of frequency, type, and quality of interaction. The researcher points out that all of the children had experience with literacy prior to formal schooling, although the majority of them were not frequent participants in story-book reading. Their parents read books in qualitatively different ways, and the literacy activity in the homes essentially was a social process reflecting both social and cultural influences. Further directions for additional research are delineated as are suggestions regarding how to enhance the literacy development of children from non-middle class backgrounds.

AUTHOR INDEX

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